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The Present Status of German Youth

Article by HENRY J. KELLERMANN¹

PART II

Subversive Activities and Organizations

The danger of political unrest and upheaval remains by and large a potential rather than an actual one in Germany, notwithstanding recent reports of large-scale conspiracies among German youth. On the whole, the numbers involved are small and the progress made by some of the groups does not go much beyond the preparatory stage. It is significant that the majority of subversive groups, such as the one unearthed by British and American authorities in the so-called "Operation Nursery", have not appeared spontaneously, but were planned prior to defeat and are led by party, SS, or Hitler Youth leaders. Other groups consisting largely of non-party members, such as the *Edelweiss-Piraten*, are essentially non-political in purpose and character. But, although the membership of most illegal groups is made up of non-political elements, their ignorance of politics and dissatisfaction with the current state of affairs make them susceptible to the blandishments of political agents. It is this growing radicalization toward the Right of non-conformist youth under expert leadership, rather than the re-emergence of specifically Nazi groups, which confronts Allied and German authorities alike with a real problem.

With this type of organization of youth for ulterior purposes, political agents have initiated the first phase of subversion. The danger is recognized by U. S. authorities, at least in effect, if not in principle. Reports from the field have warned that the lack of overt acts of resistance such as sabotage and attacks against U. S. personnel is a deceptive lull which serves to conceal the organizing functions of any subversive elements. Statements of this type do not appear to be based merely on a noticeable increase in the number of cases of civil disobedience but on reports indicating "a definite trend toward organization of subversive elements."^{2a}

There are several types of groups, employing various techniques for subversive purposes, which may be distinguished on the following bases: (1) organizations which were specifically established by National Socialists for the purpose of perpetuating or reviving the Nazi system, e. g. partisans like the Werewolves; (2) organizations which were not originally Nazi but which are being used by Nazi agents as a cover for subversive purposes, e.g. the Christian Pathfinders; (3) organizations which are nationalist and revolutionary but are not necessarily Nazi, e.g. certain student groups; (4) organizations whose political activities are incidental only, e.g. gangs such as the *Edelweiss-Piraten*. Each of these types will be examined in detail.

Nazi Partisans and Successors. Nazi partisan organizations have been formed by and from members of the Nazi Party, the SS, the SA, the Hitler Youth, the Gestapo, and officers of the Wehrmacht. Among the most prominent of these groups, so far revealed, are a reduced and remodeled Hitler Youth, the Werewolves, the SS *Jagdverbände*, the *Freikorps Adolf Hitler*, the *Aktion Bundschuh*, the *Sonderkommando Rennendorfer und Elsa*, the Eagle Eye, the Grey Wolves, and others. At least some of them were established

¹ Dr. Kellermann is a Research Analyst in the Division of Europe, Near East, and African Intelligence, Office of Research and Intelligence, Department of State. This study is partially based on observations made during a recent stay in Germany when Dr. Kellermann served as Chief of Research and Consultant to the Office of Chief of Counsel for the Prosecution of Axis Criminality.

For Part I of this article see BULLETIN of July 14, 1946, p. 49; Part III will appear in the next issue of the BULLETIN.

^{2a} The completion of "Operation Nursery" by U. S. and British Intelligence and the systematic raid on the *Edelweiss-Piraten* in Hannover by British agents have furnished new evidence of the existence of subversive groups. Moreover, Gen. Joseph T. McNarney and Bavarian Prime Minister Wilhelm Hoegner have confirmed the danger in official statements to the press. (Foreign Broadcast Intelligence Service: *Daily*, Mar. 25, 1946.)

before the collapse for the dual purpose of creating disorders in the enemy rear and, after defeat, of obstructing the efforts of Military Government and of German authorities.

Planned and organized in haste, hardly any of these organizations have achieved more than local successes. They failed to impede the Allied advance, and after defeat, most of them quickly lost support and contact. But some of them are reported to be continuing operations.

Evidence of a new type of underground technique was furnished by the widely publicized campaign, the so-called "Operation Nursery", conducted by U. S. and British intelligence in western Germany. The underground plan, revealing an embryonic stage of Nazi subversion, was conceived before the defeat by the Hitler Youth. It was intended to maintain contacts between Hitler Youth leaders and other "good German elements" under the camouflage of a legitimate business enterprise. Ultimately, the scheme was to provide for the restoration of Germany on a pre-1933 level under slightly modified Nazi auspices. The immediate aim was to preserve "the solidarity of National Socialists and of the militaristic masses." Of all subversive groups so far unearthed, this Hitler Youth plan was probably the most ramified, extensive, and dangerous.

Christian Pathfinders. This group represents a type of subversive organization which, in preparing the ground for future resistance, prefers to start on a local scale. Instead of creating a new apparatus through which to organize and channel illegal activities, some agents use well-known organizations or the titles of such organizations to camouflage their intentions and operations.

In Coburg, Bavaria, twelve youths were convicted by a U. S. military court of possessing concealed explosives and of having tried to organize a National Socialist movement under the guise of the Christian Pathfinders. Evidence showed that the Pathfinders, a group unlicensed by Military Government, had sprung originally from an organization known as the Protestant Parish Youth. The new organization, supported by a Catholic Youth leader, used symbols and techniques borrowed from both the Hitler Youth and the Nazi Storm Troops (SA). The members engaged in semi-military drill, sang SA songs, informed on civic officials, and blacklisted, defamed, and at-

tacked girls who associated with American soldiers, so-called *Schokoladenweiber*. "Christian" teachings were mixed with Nazi and Teutonic romanticism. After the court had sentenced the chief culprits to prison terms ranging from five to fifteen years, a German press correspondent overheard a spectator remark: "What does it all matter? Sentenced today, these boys will be declared martyrs perhaps two years hence."²

In Wiesbaden (U. S. zone), a Hitler Youth group of some 50 members was discovered which, under the cloak of a Protestant Boy Scout movement, planned to engage in activities directed against the occupation forces. The group published a periodical, *Schwarze Front*, which copied Nazi style and preached hatred of "Germany's enemies". Evidence of the wider ramifications of this movement was established, although there was no proof of contact with the Coburg group.

Student Groups. Intransigent nationalism and political intolerance are attitudes which especially tend to crystallize on university campuses. Recent disturbances by students in Erlangen, Göttingen, Hamburg, Aachen, and Jena did not, in the majority of cases, prove the existence of an organized effort to prepare for large-scale resistance, but they did reflect these attitudes. In the meantime it has become clearer that reactionary tendencies among German students are attributable, in large part, to the traditional registration system in the British and U. S. zones, which favored, in effect, the enrollment of sons of the upper and upper middle classes. Consequently, a large number of former Wehrmacht officers have gained admission to campuses and are now using the classroom as a platform for airing their militaristic and chauvinistic views.

In the majority of instances, the nationalism of the students appears purely negative. It mirrors a fundamental inability to face realities, an unwillingness to reform, and a fanatic adherence to the *status quo ante*. In a few cases, however, political opposition has assumed a more concrete shape. The existence of a National Bolshevik group is reported from Hamburg. Here two former members of Otto Strasser's *Schwarze Front* (a dissident Nazi group with National Bolshevik tendencies, which appeared in the early 1930's) are reported to have started a new student organization under the slogan: "Unity of the Reich, national and military spirit". The group is allegedly

² *Neue Presse* (Coburg), Feb. 6, 1946.

composed mainly of young discharged officers. At the *Technische Hochschule* in Darmstadt, the discovery of a plot to assassinate Pastor Martin Niemöller led to the detection of an incipient subversive group among the students, called the *Acht und Acht*. Inscriptions reading "88" are being found with increasing frequency on German walls. The name *Acht und Acht* is a device referring to the eighth letter of the alphabet, H, and is supposed to recall *Heil Hitler*.

Developments of this type within student bodies bear close scrutiny, because it was precisely this category of malcontent nationalistic elements which, after the last war, produced a substantial number of *Feme* murderers and Free Corps members.

The Non-Political Gangs. The greatest threat, numerically as well as potentially, appears to lie in the mounting number of gangs of wayward juveniles, who, living the life of freebooters, are roaming the cities and countryside. It is they who contribute a high percentage to the current crime wave and to the rising curve of venereal diseases. They engage in felonies and crimes ranging from petty thefts and black-market operations to organized looting and burglary. Many of them, fugitives from parental control, hide in the ruins of bombed-out houses. In some cases, however, parents have been convicted of inciting their offspring to crime and acting as "fences".

Some of these hoodlums carry brass knuckles and firearms of various types. The favorite scenes for their robberies are bakeries and butcher shops. Although some of the gangs profess that their aim is to "liquidate fascism", the majority are undoubtedly non-political in principle and character, interested mainly in augmenting their food supply or in introducing elements of thrill into otherwise drab existences.

The most important of this type of non-political gang is the so-called *Edelweiss-Piraten* of Nazi days, whose reappearance now takes on new importance. Prior to the defeat this organization was reported to have carried on anti-Nazi resistance. The group appeared to have developed out of a situation which was characterized by the progressive break-down of all social and educational controls, rather than to have been a genuine and well-led political organization with defined objectives. Today the *Edelweiss-Piraten*, maintaining their dislike of organized authority, seem to have turned Nazi in manner. They seem to indulge in a wide

range of activities including the hazing of German women accused of fraternizing with Allied troops, efforts to embarrass U. S. authorities in the eyes of the other occupation powers, the discrediting of German officials, and in planning to prepare the Germans for the acceptance of a powerful Nazi-like state.

Actually, the *Edelweiss-Piraten* appear to operate as individual, unrelated gangs with different emblems and names; the existence of a central leadership is doubtful. Communications between the groups seem poorly organized, although attempts appear to have been made to establish liaison between groups situated along major railroad trunk lines, e.g. from Munich via Nürnberg, Frankfurt, and Kassel to Hannover. Membership consists of delinquent juveniles, veterans (including former PW's), homeless wanderers of various types, and foreign PW's unwilling to return to their former areas of residence. The upper age limit is set at 22.³

The *Edelweiss-Piraten*, unquestionably, are not a genuine Nazi resistance group. The political significance of their activities is incidental. Resistance may be a real issue to some of the members, or even groups, but to most it is, no doubt, an alibi to explain immoral and asocial activities. On the whole, the *Edelweiss-Piraten* appears to be a rallying point for youths who are fugitives from social controls. Faced with total frustration, they romanticize their present state of law-

³ They have also conducted large-scale black market operations, stolen quantities of food and money, harassed displaced persons, particularly Poles, beaten up former inmates of concentration camps, assisted in escapes of former SS men from prison stockades, and blown up bridges. Individual members frequently deny having any knowledge of political objectives but at times, admit that they brag about their membership in order to impress their friends. Munich, Frankfurt, and Hannover have each been described as the headquarters of the organization. *Edelweiss-Piraten* may cooperate with other subversive groups. It has been reported that they have received assignments from outside their own circle. For instance, in one case *Edelweiss-Piraten* are said to have aided, possibly supplied, a group of fugitive *Waffen-SS* members hiding in the mountains around Regensburg. According to a statement by Bavarian Minister Schmitt, the discovery and arrest of a group of *Edelweiss-Piraten* in Bavaria produced evidence of a conspiracy of definite political implications; 80 German Wehrmacht officers had camouflaged themselves as *Edelweiss-Piraten* members in order to prepare more safely a plot against 400 leading personalities including members of the Bavarian Government (*Schwäbische Landeszeitung*, Apr. 9, 1946).

lessness and seek to perpetuate anarchy as the only means of survival. While they cannot be expected to take the lead in any political movement, such youths represent ideal material for political groups and individuals on the lookout for expendable followers. There is, in fact, evidence that some of the groups are led by men previously trained in espionage and sabotage.

Measures of Rehabilitation

The problem of German youth described has been generally recognized by Allied and German authorities and by native political factions. A variety of palliative measures have been adopted, none of which, however, has as yet produced conclusive results. This fact is due primarily to reasons not inherent in the specific youth measures. To a considerable extent the present predicament of German youth must be understood as a reflection of the political and economic situation as a whole. Pending a process of general recovery, e.g. improvement in the food situation, the employment market, and housing facilities, and pending, particularly, a restoration of adequate schooling and training programs, all efforts to rehabilitate German youth will necessarily remain makeshift.

Ultimately, however, the rehabilitation of German youth will depend on the degree to which youth can be drawn into the general process of political revival. Here again it will be important whether young people are treated as social charges with emphasis placed on social prevention and therapy, or whether rehabilitation is understood as a mobilization of all active elements for the purpose of joining the positive forces within the community in the task of political, economic, and physical reconstruction. These two approaches are, of course, not mutually exclusive but complementary. It is, however, characteristic of the current situation that German and non-German authorities and political parties within the four zones differ in the way in which they focus main attention either on the preventive-therapeutic or on the socio-political form of rehabilitation.

In the Soviet zone and in Berlin, efforts of Soviet and German authorities have been directed, almost from the very beginning, to giving youth

an active part in the general process of reconstruction and by virtue of their participation, a function within the zonal, regional, and local administration as well. Youth not only shares responsibility in official policies and measures inaugurated for its specific benefit, but also shares in the programs and functions of such adult groups as the trade unions. However, while the integration of youth into public life proceeds, avowedly, under non-political auspices, it has led to youth's becoming an integral part of Communist plans to use the organization of diverse elements as a means of political expansion.

In the western zones, military governments and German authorities have focused their attention with speed and consistency upon the field of social prevention and therapy. Attempts on the part of political parties and of youth to participate in politics through organization along party lines were discouraged, at least in the beginning. The military governments thus are in agreement with church groups and the conservative political parties in their efforts to keep youth clear of politics. In practice, however, measures taken by the Western Allies have not been uniform, sometimes not even within the same zone. Lately, the protective attitude of U. S. and British authorities aiming at the segregation of youth from politics seems to have undergone certain modifications. In the British and American zones, Military Government has come to support and to create youth organizations not only for recreational purposes but also for the tasks of reconstruction; in some places it has also permitted the formation of youth groups with political affinities, although with certain qualifications.

Security and Welfare Measures

In all zones immediate steps have been taken to combat the worst symptoms of demoralization and social decay. For example, Juvenile Court (*Jugendgerichte*) and Juvenile Offices (*Jugendämter*) have been reopened in various places to deal with wayward, vagrant, and criminal youth.⁴ Recreation centers (*Jugendheime*) have been set up in many cities. In Bavaria one Father Neumaier, a classmate of the famed American Father Flanagan, has established a Bavarian copy of "Boys' Town" for 200 juvenile delinquents.⁵ In various cities, furthermore, private agencies such as the Catholic Youth Welfare, Protestant Youth Aid, and the Association for the Protection of Children

⁴ *Süddeutsche Zeitung*, Mar. 1, 1946. The Youth Office at Darmstadt reported a case load of more than 600 at the beginning of the year (*Darmstädter Echo*, Jan. 30, 1946).

⁵ *Main-Echo* (Aschaffenburg), Apr. 6, 1946.

lend their assistance to the public agencies.⁶ To meet an urgent problem curfews have been set for youths.⁷ Juvenile Courts using Juvenile Offices as their executive organs have begun to sentence wayward and delinquent youth to perform clearance work.⁸ A Law for the Protection of Youth (*Jugendschutzverordnung*) is being prepared by the Legal Committee of the Council of State (*Länderrat*) in the U. S. zone.⁹

To bridge the current period of inactivity and unemployment, Allied authorities in all zones have used youth for clearance and reconstruction work. Emergency farm and garden projects have been organized in the U. S. zone; some 30,000 young people have been occupied in workshops and sewing classes in Berlin.¹⁰ In Saxony (Soviet zone), the authorities are planning to set up agricultural projects and a "youth village",¹¹ which youth will build as well as administer. Troops everywhere have taught various sports to German young people and have arranged dual sporting events.

Most of these projects are temporary in nature, but there have also been attempts to introduce reforms as part of a permanent training system. For example, in the British zone all girls between the ages of 14 and 21, following their graduation from school and prior to their learning a trade or vocation, are required to spend a year in domestic service. This so-called "house year" (*Hausjahr* or *Haushaltsjahr*), for which the girls receive payment and vacations, is spent in a household assigned by the employment office.¹² A similar plan is expected to be introduced by decree in the U. S. zone,¹³ with the term of service to be spent either in households, including the parental one, hospitals, or welfare institutions. The employment offices are to give preference to those girls who have completed their year of service. A plan is also under consideration for young males.¹⁴

The "house year" has been widely discussed in the German press. Critics have denounced its compulsory nature as a "Nazi method", but supporters, both public and private, have underscored the need for official measures to insure the employment and allocation of juvenile labor.¹⁵ Indeed, there have been proposals for a "state service year", in lieu of military training, during which time boys would be employed in the rebuilding of cities and girls would be engaged in agricultural and domestic work. This labor was to be accompanied by courses of instruction in political, economic, and historical subjects.¹⁶

Both British and American policies seem in part formulated with the view to extending the period of pre-training and, possibly, with the purpose of postponing a final vocational decision.¹⁷ Soviet policies, in contrast, seem to encourage an early choice of occupation. Moreover, local and provincial authorities have inaugurated immediate plans for vocational training.¹⁸

Aside from efforts to use vocational training as a basis for political reforms, appeals have been made for a broad educational program for youth on an extra-curricular level. Parties, churches, and public agencies are being asked to institute general educational projects (*allgemeines Bildungswerk*) for youth similar to the International People's Academy (*Internationale Volksakademie*) established at Coburg.¹⁹ Emphasis has been placed, specifically, on the need for literature to enlighten youth on the values of true humanitarianism and democracy.²⁰ In the Soviet zone, so-called "youth schools" have been inaugurated under the auspices of regional and local youth com-

⁶ *Süddeutsche Zeitung*, Mar. 1, 1946.

⁷ *News of Germany*, Oct. 29, 1945; *Rhein-Neckar-Zeitung* (Heidelberg), Feb. 9, 1946; *Wiesbadener Kurier* (Wiesbaden), Feb. 23, 1946.

⁸ *Mittelbayerische Zeitung* (Regensburg), Mar. 3, 1946.

⁹ *Stuttgarter Zeitung*, Apr. 6, 1946.

¹⁰ *Die Neue Zeitung*, Jan. 4, 1946.

¹¹ Political Intelligence Division of the British Foreign Office: *Daily Digest for Germany and Austria*, Feb. 14, 1946.

¹² *Frankfurter Rundschau*, Jan. 31, 1946.

¹³ *Die Neue Zeitung*, Jan. 11, 1946.

¹⁴ It is reported that the Bavarian Ministry of Labor is planning to organize the "Bavarian Youth Work 1946/47" in order to employ youths in domestic, agricultural, and social work prior to their formal apprenticeships. See *Donau-Kurier* (Ingolstadt), Apr. 5; *Main-Echo*, Apr. 6, 1946. According to latest reports this plan has not been put in effect.

¹⁵ *Marburger Presse* (Marburg), Jan. 15, 1946; *Schwäbische Donau-Zeitung* (Ulm), Feb. 23, 1946.

¹⁶ *Schwäbische Donau-Zeitung*, Feb. 23, 1946.

¹⁷ By the same token, authorities in the western zones are considering the institution of a ninth school year.

¹⁸ For instance, the provincial administration of Saxony is reported to have set up a central committee for vocational training, composed of representatives of the various chambers of trade, the provincial government, and the Free German Trade-Union Association. Its aims include: reorganization of apprenticeships, development of new teaching methods, practical application of industrial psychology, etc. See PID: *Daily Digest for Germany and Austria*, Feb. 7, 1946.

¹⁹ *Neue Presse* (Coburg), Feb. 2, 1946.

²⁰ *Der Tagesspiegel* (Berlin), Feb. 8, 1946.

mittees. In at least two zones special magazines have been issued for youth and books for youths and children have been published.

Finally, newspapers in all zones have asked for the reestablishment of contact between German youth and the youth of democratic countries.²¹ German youths have already participated as observers in the World Youth Conference held in London in early November 1945.²² One of the German spokesmen submitted a resolution asking for foreign study of the German youth movement and outside aid in meeting the problems and in helping its democratic members. British, Canadian, and Soviet Delegates supported the motion. The World Youth Council has since asked the Central Youth Committee of Berlin to send an official observer to its meetings. Heinz Kessler, head of the Main Youth Committee, was chosen. Leaders of the British youth movement have already met with officials of German youth offices and representatives of German youth organizations to discuss fundamental problems and practical devices.²³ In addition, a number of British officers are working with German youth organizations and clubs. Likewise, American Scout leaders serving with the U. S. forces have helped organize the new Boy Scout movement within the American zone. Youth Committees in the American zone with the assistance of MG Youth Officers are now preparing educational and recreational programs for youth.

Youth Organizations

The role of youth organizations within German society has always been hotly debated by youth and adults. During the Weimar period, and before, opinion was split into two major camps, one represented by the members of the so-called "youth movement" (*Jugendbewegung*), the other by supporters of the institution of "youth care" (*Jugendpflege*). The youth movement was a common denominator for all youth, which was recruited, organized, and led by youth in accordance with

forms and principles created by them. It reflected the will of youth to live independently from, and, if need be, in opposition to, the rules established by a society that was torn by political and social strife. The asocial and non-political character of this youth, its romanticism patterned on medieval symbols (*Landsknechts-Romantik*), its irresponsibility in matters of concern to the community as a whole, and its claim to complete integration of the individual into the group, made some of its members particularly susceptible to National Socialism.

Youth care, on the other hand, represented the organized effort by such adult groups as churches, social and cultural associations, and political parties to sponsor and control the activities of youth, generally with a view to insuring the future support of their group interests. When started under the auspices of public agencies, youth organizations not infrequently complemented parental and school controls through supervision of organized leisure-time activities.

The Hitler Youth adopted elements of both types of youth organizations. It took over certain romantic symbols of the youth movement and transformed the principle of group integration into total subordination. On the other hand, as the exclusive reservoir for the Nazi Party, the army, and the bureaucracy, the Hitler Youth carried the principle of adult tutelage to the extreme of state monopoly and thus became an oversized form of youth care.

The new type of organizations introduced in all zones by Military Government, although preserving certain minor elements of the youth movement, unquestionably gravitates toward youth care. Concepts and methods vary, but they conform to the extent that all powers have conceded to youth a limited right to organize. Whether the reconstitution of youth organizations corresponds to a general desire on the part of youth to be organized is open to doubt. Observers in both eastern and western zones find that the vast majority of youth remains distrustful, even hostile, or at best indifferent toward all forms of organization.²⁴ Where individual youths have a more positive attitude, they produce varying demands. Some clamor for a free and autonomous youth movement,²⁵ some for a state-instituted "youth project" (*Jugendwerk*),²⁶ some for youth organizations sponsored by, or affiliated with, political parties.²⁷

²¹ *Ibid.*

²² *Deutsche Volkszeitung* (Berlin), Nov. 14, 1945.

²³ *Neue Rheinische Zeitung* (Düsseldorf), Feb. 13, 1946.

²⁴ *Hochland-Bote* (Garmisch-Partenkirchen), Jan. 9, 1946.

²⁵ *Der Tagesspiegel*, Dec. 28, 1945 and Feb. 6, 1946; *Schwäbische Donau-Zeitung*, Feb. 16, 1946.

²⁶ *Schwäbische Donau-Zeitung*, Feb. 16, 1946.

²⁷ *Hochland-Bote*, Jan. 9, 1946.

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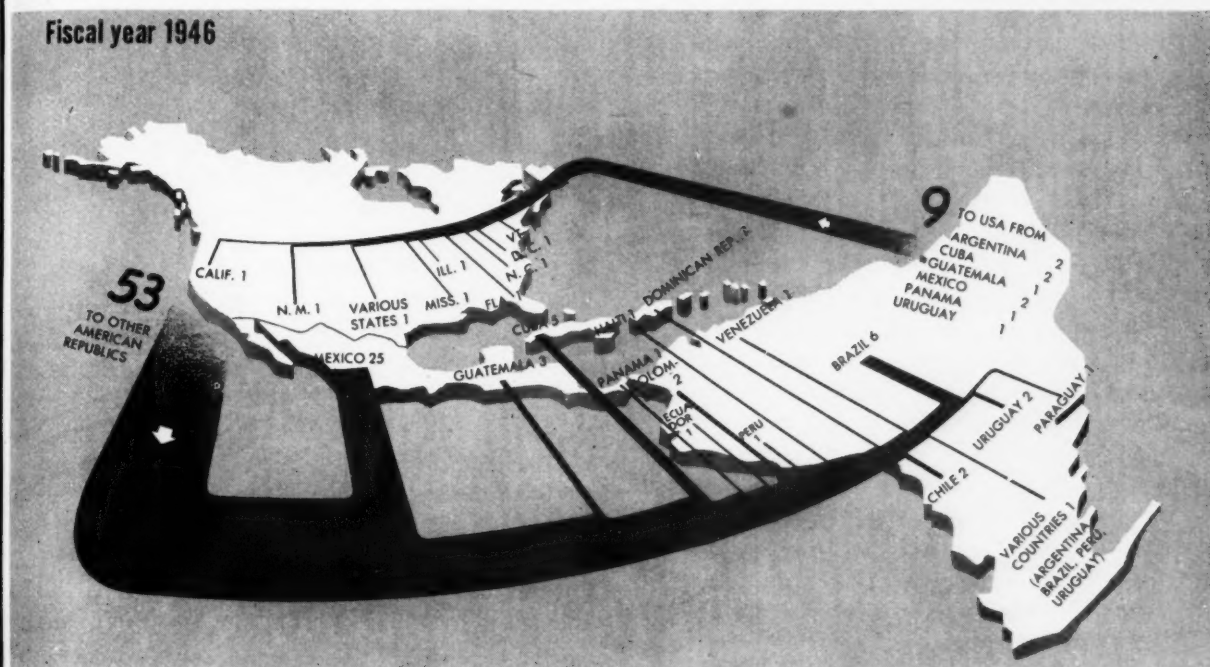
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Exchange Of Professors Between U. S. and Other American Republics

Article by J. MANUEL ESPINOSA



FOR MANY YEARS some of the larger universities throughout the Western Hemisphere have invited visiting professors from Europe to conduct regular courses in most of the important fields of science, the arts, and the humanities. This interchange has contributed greatly in broadening the international cultural panorama throughout this hemisphere. Political turmoil abroad also has brought many distinguished professors to our shores. But frequently these men and women have preferred to remain in America to help enrich their international cultural outlook and have not returned to their homelands. True cultural interchange is a two-way affair.

The exchange of professors between the United States and the other republics of this hemisphere is a much more recent development. The United States Government has been a pioneer in encouraging on a large scale such exchanges throughout the Western Hemisphere. By offering to institutions of higher learning—both here and south of the Rio Grande—information and services and, when necessary, grants-in-aid to meet unusual expenses, the Department of State, through funds appropriated by Congress, has played a most sig-

Mr. Espinosa is Divisional Assistant in the Division of International Exchange of Persons, Office of International Information and Cultural Affairs, Department of State.

nificant role in facilitating and in increasing the direct exchange of knowledge and information of mutual interest throughout this hemisphere.

In recent years this program has greatly accelerated the development of similar bilateral cooperative educational agreements between the governments of the other American republics themselves. Occasionally exchanges of visiting professors have been arranged directly by universities and individual professors or have been made possible by private foundations and scientific institutions in this country and the other American republics. Thus fostered, strengthened, and reinforced, the exchange of professors has become a permanent feature of inter-American cooperation—a two-way, face-to-face exchange of accurate knowledge of the progress of science, the humanities, technology, and the artistic achievements of the sister nations of the Americas.

The term *visiting professor*, as used here, is applied only to the recipients of grants-in-aid from the Department of State whose primary purpose has been to conduct courses, deliver lectures, direct research, or otherwise serve in a specific professorial capacity at institutions of higher learning in one or more of the 21 American republics. There has been a striking increase in the number of visiting professors under this program during the last two years. This increase is especially significant when one realizes that virtually all of the visiting professors were specifically requested by the host universities. The preponderance of visiting professors from this country to the other American republics represents the proportionate number of requests from universities in this country and in the other American republics for assistance from the Department of State in facilitating such cooperative projects.

"Since most of these were accompanied by offers from the universities to pay the visitors the same salaries their own professors receive (the Department's grants cover travel and the differences between United States and foreign salary standards and monetary values), it is clear that such a

movement . . . is not a cultural 'invasion' but simply a warm response to an offer of intellectual fellowship."¹

The first important landmark in the history of the exchange of professors between the nations of the Western Hemisphere was the Convention for the Promotion of Inter-American Cultural Relations, signed by all the American republics at the Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Peace, Buenos Aires, December 23, 1936. The Buenos Aires convention, which has since been ratified by all of the American republics except Argentina, Cuba, Ecuador, El Salvador, and Uruguay, makes provision for the exchange of professors and students. With reference to the exchange of professors, the convention provides that:

"Each High Contracting Party shall communicate to each of the other High Contracting Parties through diplomatic channels, on the first of January of every alternate year, a complete list of the full professors available for exchange service. . . . From this list each one of the other High Contracting Parties shall arrange to select a visiting professor who shall either give lectures in various centers, or conduct regular courses of instruction, or pursue special research in some designated institution and who shall in other appropriate ways promote better understanding between the parties cooperating, it being understood, however, that preference shall be given to teaching rather than to research work."

The sending government is required to provide all the expenses and salary of its exchange professors.

Several years passed before the United States Government was prepared to attempt to carry out the provisions of the Buenos Aires convention. The traditional attitude in the United States that cultural interchange belonged properly within the sphere of private initiative, and the fact that hitherto there was no agency in the Federal Government to deal with such international cultural relations, explain in part the late participation of the United States Government in actively implementing the convention.

In order to make it possible for the Government to coordinate and make more effective the important role of private agencies in this country in the development of both national and international cooperation in cultural relations, the Division of Cultural Relations was established in the

¹ Francis J. Colligan, "Exchange of Specialists and Distinguished Leaders in the Western Hemisphere" (Department of State publication 2414, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1945), p. 9. Pages 8-9 of this article describe briefly the visiting-professors program of the Department of State for the 1945 fiscal year. See BULLETIN of Sept. 9, 1945, p. 366.

Department of State by Departmental Order 768 issued on July 28, 1938. The Department of State has said:

"The broad purpose of the Division of Cultural Relations is to make friends for the United States abroad through the development of a greater understanding and appreciation of the best contributions which this country may exchange with other nations. . . .

"As an official agency charged with this type of exchange, the Division seeks to coordinate activities within the Government and works closely with the important private organizations and institutions of the country which are engaged in intellectual cooperation. It is the view of the Department that in this country the primary responsibility for cultural exchange properly resides with private agencies and institutions and the major functions of the Division are to make the good offices of the Government available to private enterprise and to serve as a clearing house for the activities of private organizations."²

One of the first concerns of the newly established Division of Cultural Relations was to fulfill the obligations of the Buenos Aires convention. In 1940 and again in 1942, in accordance with the terms of the convention, lists of all the persons who had expressed interest in being considered for exchange service were prepared and communicated to each of the other ratifying countries through the American diplomatic and consular missions. To assist in the selection of a visiting professor from these lists, each government was sent a supplementary list of professors who had expressed interest in teaching in the particular country concerned. The Appropriation Act of the Department of State for the 1941 fiscal year (54 Stat. 181) provided funds necessary for meeting the obligations of the United States under the convention, and in the fall of 1940 and early in 1941 the first appointments of United States exchange professors were made.

Meanwhile, two other important developments contributed greatly toward reinforcing the general program for the exchange of professors in this hemisphere. The first was the inauguration of the now well-established travel-grant program of the Department of State, made possible by funds provided in the Second Deficiency Appropriation Act, 1940. This travel-grant program has made possible the exchange of specialists, public officials,

leaders of thought and opinion, and distinguished persons in almost every field of mutual interest, for special study, observation, and consultation in a particular field of interest, or to enable them to serve as consultants, make special surveys, present programs, or deliver lectures in one or more countries. Under this program, over 350 such persons have visited the United States, and a lesser number from this country have visited the other American republics. Many others, traveling on their own or under private auspices, upon the recommendation of the American foreign missions concerned or the Department of State, are given advice, direction, and assistance in planning their program of activities and in facilitating the contacts which would be most helpful to them. This type of interchange under private auspices, although limited, has been continuous since the early nineteenth century.

The second important development was the appointment in 1941 of the first cultural-relations officers of the Department of State, who are attached to American missions abroad and who supervise cultural-relations activities in the field; they serve as the operating link of the Government abroad in facilitating cultural cooperation between the people of the Other American republics and the people of this country.

The significance of the Buenos Aires convention in furthering the exchange of visiting professors throughout the Americas cannot be overemphasized, since it gave spirit and life to a program which has become a permanent feature of inter-American relations.

The specific provisions of the convention, however, proved impracticable, and only eight exchange professors from the United States, and one from below the Rio Grande, have served under the convention. First, the provisions of the convention were cumbersome and unwieldy. By the time a professor signed the necessary application forms, was listed on a panel, had his name submitted to the signatory nations, and was selected by a par-

² *The Program of the Department of State in Cultural Relations* (Department of State publication 1441, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1940).

The Division of Cultural Relations was abolished and the New Division of Science, Education, and Art organized in 1944. Later in 1944 the title was changed to "Division of Cultural Cooperation." The travel-grant program of the Department is now administered by the Division of International Exchange of Persons.

ticular country, the original date of his availability had long passed. Secondly, the provision that all the expenses of a visiting professor should be borne by the sending government proved a handicap to those countries with currency at unfavorable exchange rates. Thirdly, the procedure prescribed by the convention for the selection of exchange professors was too rigid. Universities seeking a visiting professor from abroad usually have a specific field of study or a specific individual in mind and therefore prefer not to limit their choice to a prepared list drawn up without any relation to their specific situation and needs.

Beginning on July 1, 1941, as a part of the travel-grant program, the Department of State, adapting itself realistically to needs and circumstances, arranged to assist in sending and receiving visiting professors on a bilateral cooperative basis, outside of the convention. At first, because of the limited funds available and the delays involved in inaugurating new procedures, only a very few arrangements could be worked out. During the 1941 fiscal year there had been four United States visiting professors under the convention. During the 1942 fiscal year there were two under the convention and four under the new arrangement. The American diplomatic and consular missions in the other American republics were given detailed information regarding this new program in the fall of the year 1942.

There were 16 exchange professorships during the 1943 fiscal year under the new cooperative arrangement, an increase of 6 over the combined total of the two previous years. Perhaps more significant was the fact that for the first time the exchange was a two-way affair, 5 visiting professors from the other American republics receiving teaching positions in the United States and 11 from this country going to various of the other American republics. There were 15 exchanges in the 1944 fiscal year, and the ratio was virtually the same. Henceforth there was to be only one exchange professor specifically under the terms of the convention. Gradually the Department of State integrated the professorial program under the Buenos Aires convention with the cooperatively financed one now successfully in operation.

The visiting-professors program came into its own during the years 1944-46. Grants-in-aid were made to 54 visiting professors during the 1945 fiscal year, 47 from the United States to the other American republics and 7 from the other Ameri-

can republics to the United States. For the first time the funds available for this cooperative program were exhausted several months before the termination of the fiscal year, and it was necessary to reject some 40 requests (which were almost entirely from universities in the other American republics) for financial assistance which, combined with the amount their universities were able to contribute, would have made possible the obtaining of visiting professors. During the 1946 fiscal year the Department extended grants-in-aid to 62 visiting professors. Of these, 53 were from the United States to the other American republics and 9 were from the other American republics to this country.

In planning, initiating, and carrying into effect these international exchanges, the Department of State relies upon the advice and experience of other Government agencies and private educational research, and philanthropic institutions and organizations, in the United States and abroad, which are interested or engaged in the program. It cooperates with such groups in order to prevent unnecessary duplication of effort and to coordinate their international activities. In the selection of visiting professors, apart from the primary requirement of professional competence, proficiency in the languages of the other American republics is required sufficient to enable the professor to conduct classes or direct research in Spanish, Portuguese, or French, as the case may be. At the same time the professors selected are considered to be something more than intellectuals cooperating solely as specialists in a particular field. Whenever possible they are chosen from those American citizens, of varied experience, who can represent their country faithfully abroad. The ability to speak naturally and without fear of misunderstanding in the language of the country visited is therefore doubly important.

Visiting professors from the United States receive advice and assistance in arranging their travel and their proper reception abroad and are asked to spend a period of time in Washington prior to their departure, in order that they may become acquainted with the latest developments in the program. During the course of their assignments necessary contacts are maintained through correspondence, periodic reports, and directives through the American diplomatic and consular missions. Similar guidance and supervision is given to visiting professors from the other American republics by the appropriate offi-

cers of the American missions abroad, and by the Department of State during their stay in this country.

Grants-in-aid for visiting professorships are limited, wherever possible, to supplementing or facilitating private and governmental efforts at home and in the other American republics and in eliminating financial obstacles to effective international exchange, such as adverse rates of exchange, costs of international travel, and the discrepancies in national public and private financial resources. In general, visiting professors are considered only when requested by the host university and when that institution offers at least the equivalent of the compensation received by its own professors. The grants-in-aid of the Department of State aim to supplement the amount provided by the host institution and the amount received by the visiting professor from other sources during the course of his visiting professorship. In the case of visiting professors from the United States, such grants include a sum for necessary textbooks and teaching materials, which are ordered through the Department of State and are donated to the host university as a gift of the United States Government upon the termination of the visiting professorship.

During the period from July 1, 1940 to July 1, 1946, 157 visiting professors received grants-in-aid from the Department of State; 31 universities and colleges in all but one of the other American republics and 49 institutions of higher learning in 25 States in the United States and the District of Columbia participated in this program. Approximately one third of these visiting professorships were full-year appointments. Professors from the other American republics have taught in this country in the fields of language, literature, history, medicine, art, and music. Professors from the United States have taught in the other American republics in the fields of language, literature, history, law, government, sociology, economics, mathematics, statistics, psychology, philosophy, anthropology, folklore, music, art, architecture, ceramics, medicine, dentistry, physics, biology, genetics, chemistry, geology, engineering, botany, zoology, agriculture, education, library science, home economics, and physical education. Of the number, 13 were women—2 from the other American republics and 11 from the United States. They taught courses, or con-

ducted research in the fields of, chemistry, library science, art, language, literature, home economics, and physical education.

Frequently the most important and valuable contributions of visiting professors have proved to be outside the classroom or laboratory: publishing articles for newspapers and periodicals, class outlines, even textbooks in the language of the country visited; delivering public lectures before school or civic groups or over the radio in the university community and in the surrounding area, in some cases even in neighboring countries; serving as consultants and advisers to public and private institutions and agencies requesting such assistance; collaborating with the authorities of the institutions visited in their efforts to broaden their departments, laboratories, and programs and to establish wider professional contacts, obtain gifts, or purchase scientific literature, laboratory equipment, and other teaching materials.

"Teaching, writing, and undertaking research, all these professors make friends and lasting contacts for themselves, their home universities, their professional societies, and the people of the United States. This making of friends for the United States is, in fact, the usual by-product of the travel abroad which the Department of State has encouraged and aided."³

It would be futile here to attempt to present a full account and evaluation of the contributions of these visiting professorships in strengthening the bonds of cultural unity in this hemisphere. That story would require a sizable volume.

Assistant Secretary of State William Benton alluded to the significance of this type of supplementary and facilitative Government service in furthering international cultural relations when he wrote:

"The exchange of skills, knowledge, students, scientists, and other specialists is a relatively new idea and hence, to some, unorthodox. We should not close our minds because of that. We should, on the contrary, with the development of the atomic bomb and other terrifying weapons of destruction, place our small and inconspicuous bets on these long-range measures which hold some reasonable hope and promise that the world can learn to live together in peace and understanding."⁴

³ BULLETIN of Sept. 9, 1945, p. 369.

⁴ BULLETIN of Oct. 21, 1945, p. 591.

Agreement Between the U. S. and the Kingdom of the Yemen¹

SANA'A, May 4, 1946.

EXCELLENCY:

I have the honor to make the following statement of my Government's understanding of the agreement reached through conversations held at Sana'a April 14 to May 4 by representatives of the Government of the United States of America and the Government of the Kingdom of the Yemen with reference to diplomatic and consular representation, juridical protection, commerce and navigation as hereafter defined. These two Governments, having in mind the letter dated March 4, 1946, from the President of the United States of America to the Inman Yehya Bin Mohamed Hamid-un-din, King of the Yemen, by which the United States of America recognized the complete and absolute independence of the Kingdom of the Yemen, and desiring to strengthen the friendly relations happily existing between the two countries, and to respect the rights of this independence recognized by the above-mentioned letter as the basis for all their relations and to maintain the most-favored-nation principle in its unconditional and unlimited form as the basis of their commercial relations, agree to the following provisions:

ARTICLE I

The United States of America and the Kingdom of the Yemen will exchange diplomatic representatives and consular officers at a date which shall be fixed by mutual agreement between the two Governments.

ARTICLE II

The diplomatic representatives of each Party accredited to the Government of the other Party shall enjoy in the territories of such other Party the rights, privileges, exemptions and immunities accorded under generally recognized principles of international law. The consular officers of each Party who are assigned to the Government of the

other Party, and are duly provided with exequaturs, shall be permitted to reside in the territories of such other Party at the places where consular officers are permitted by the applicable laws to reside; they shall enjoy the honorary privileges and the immunities accorded to officers of their rank by general international usage; and they shall not, in any event, be treated in a manner less favorable than similar officers of any third country.

ARTICLE III

Subjects of His Majesty the King of the Yemen in the United States of America and nationals of the United States of America in the Kingdom of the Yemen shall be received and treated in accordance with the requirements and practices of generally recognized international law. In respect of their persons, possessions and rights, such subjects or nationals shall enjoy the fullest protection of the laws and authorities of the country, and shall not be treated in any manner less favorable than the nationals of any third country. Subjects of His Majesty in the United States of America and nationals of the United States of America in the Kingdom of the Yemen shall be subject to the local laws and regulations, and shall enjoy the rights and privileges accorded in this third Article.

ARTICLE IV

In all matters relating to customs duties and charges of any kind imposed on or in connection with importation or exportation or otherwise affecting commerce and navigation, to the method of levying such duties and charges, to all rules and formalities in connection with importation or exportation, and to transit, warehousing and other facilities, each Party shall accord unconditional and unrestricted most-favored-nation treatment to articles the growth, produce or manufacture of the other Party, from whatever place arriving, or to articles destined for exportation to the territories of such other Party, by whatever route. Any advantage, favor, privilege or immunity with respect to any duty, charge or regulation affecting com-

¹ An identical text was signed by Abdul Karim Mutahhar, Deputy Foreign Minister of the Yemen, at Sana'a on May 4, 1946.

merce or navigation now or hereafter accorded by the United States of America or by the Kingdom of the Yemen to any third country will be accorded immediately and unconditionally to the commerce and navigation of the Kingdom of the Yemen and of the United States of America, respectively. The advantages relating to customs duties now or hereafter accorded by the United States of America to the Republic of Cuba shall be excepted from the provisions of this Agreement.

ARTICLE V

There shall be excepted from the provisions of Article IV of this Agreement advantages now or hereafter accorded: by virtue of a customs union of which either Party may become a member; to adjacent countries in order to facilitate frontier traffic; and by the United States of America or its territories or possessions to one another or to the Panama Canal Zone.

The last clause shall continue to apply in respect of any advantages now or hereafter accorded by the United States of America or its territories or possessions to one another irrespective of any change in the political status of any such territories or possessions. Nothing in this Agreement shall prevent the adoption or enforcement by either Party within the area of its jurisdiction; of measures relating to the importation or exportation of gold or silver or the traffic in arms, ammunition, and implements of war, and, in exceptional circumstances, all other military supplies: of measures necessary in pursuance of obligations for the maintenance of international peace and security or necessary for the protection of the essential interests of such Party in time of national emergency; or of statutes in relation to immigration and travel. Subject to the requirement that, under like circumstances and conditions, there shall be

no arbitrary discrimination by either Party against the subjects, nationals, commerce or navigation of the other Party in favor of the subjects, nationals, commerce or navigation of any third country, the provisions of this Agreement shall not extend to prohibitions or restrictions: imposed on moral or humanitarian grounds; designed to protect human, animal, or plant life or health; relating to prison-made goods; or relating to the enforcement of police or revenue law.

ARTICLE VI

The provisions of this Agreement shall apply to all territory under the sovereignty or authority of either of the parties, except the Panama Canal Zone.

ARTICLE VII

This Agreement shall continue in force until superseded by a more comprehensive commercial agreement, or until thirty days from the date of a written notice of termination given by either Party to the other Party, whichever is the earlier. Moreover, either Party may terminate Articles I, II, III or IV on thirty days' written notice.

If the above provisions are acceptable to the Government of the Kingdom of the Yemen this note and the reply signifying assent thereto shall, if agreeable to that Government, be regarded as constituting an agreement between two Governments which shall become effective on the date of such acceptance.

Accept [etc.]

WILLIAM A. EDDY

*Chief, Special U.S. Diplomatic
Mission to the Kingdom of the Yemen*

Al Qadi ABDUL KARIM MUTAHHAR

*Deputy Minister of Foreign Affairs
Kingdom of the Yemen*

The United Nations

Meeting of the Atomic Energy Commission

U. S. MEMORANDUM 1: CONTROL AND DEVELOPMENT OF ATOMIC ENERGY ¹

After giving careful consideration to the views expressed by the Chairman of our Subcommittee at its first meeting yesterday and to the comments of the other members of this Subcommittee, the American Delegation has concluded that the recommendations of the Chairman of our Subcommittee offer a sound and expeditious approach to the solution of our problems. Accordingly, the American Delegation concurs in and endorses them.

In furtherance thereof, we submit this memorandum in the hope that it may aid the Subcommittee in conducting its deliberations and reaching its conclusions. The memorandum is an attempt to outline in logical sequence a number of the more important points upon which the Commission itself will undoubtedly desire the views of this Subcommittee. It does not purport to be complete. There will certainly be many additional points requiring this Subcommittee's consideration.

A. The control and development of atomic energy must be international and should be entrusted to an agency which for present purposes is called the Atomic Development Authority.

B. The Authority would be created by a treaty, which should include a form of charter for the Authority and some very important additional provisions.

C. The preamble of the treaty should express the following principles:

1. The preservation of international peace and security in accordance with the purposes and principles stated in the Preamble and Chapter I of the Charter of the United Nations;

2. The safeguarding of all peoples against the use of atomic weapons;

3. The development and wide distribution of atomic energy and its by-products for purposes of raising the welfare and standard of life of the peoples of the world and of contributing to their science and culture; and

4. The realization of these ends through international cooperation, through an international agency for the development and control of atomic energy, and through a system of international enforcement.

D. The treaty should contain provisions:

1. Defining the relations between the Authority and the Security Council, the General Assembly, the International Court of Justice, and the other organs of the United Nations;

2. Defining the mutual rights and obligations of the several signatory States and the Authority, including the relations between the Authority and any atomic energy control agencies of the signatory States;

3. Governing the sequence and timing of the steps in the transition from the present conditions to the conditions which will prevail once the Authority is in effective control of atomic energy;

4. Specifying the time when and the conditions under which the national and private possession, manufacture, and use of atomic weapons shall be outlawed;

5. Defining the violations which shall constitute international crimes and specifying the sanctions to be employed for such violations;

6. Relating to signature, ratification, entry into force and amendment of the treaty; and

7. Concerning any necessary amendment of the charter of the United Nations.

E. The charter of the Atomic Development Au-

¹ Submitted to Subcommittee 1 of the United Nations Atomic Energy Commission on July 2 by the associate member on the U. S. delegation to the United Nations Atomic Energy Commission, Ferdinand Eberstadt, and released to the press by the U. S. delegation on the same date.

thority should state the following purposes of the Authority:

1. To prevent the possession, manufacture or use of atomic weapons for mass destruction;
2. To foster the beneficial, non-dangerous uses of atomic energy;
3. To have managerial control or ownership of all atomic energy activities potentially dangerous to world security;
4. To control, inspect, and license all other atomic energy activities;
5. To engage in atomic energy research and development; and
6. To assure that the benefits derived from such research and development shall be available to the peoples of all the signatory States so long as each State and its people support the Authority and observe their obligations under the treaty and charter.

F. The charter should contain specific provisions governing topics under the following principal headings:

1. *Functions and Powers of the Atomic Development Authority.* Subject to application in the manner to be defined in the charter, the Authority should be granted the following powers:

a. To obtain and maintain complete and exclusive control or ownership of all uranium, thorium, and other material which may be a source of atomic energy wherever present in potentially dangerous quantities whether in raw material, by-product, processed, or other form;

b. To conduct continuous investigations and surveys of sources of atomic energy throughout the world, in aid of the proper exercise of the foregoing and the Authority's other functions and powers;

c. To acquire, construct, own, and exclusively operate all facilities for the production of U-235, plutonium, and such other fissionable materials as may be specified by the Authority, and to maintain supplies of fissionable materials adequate to fulfill the purposes of the Authority;

d. To define and determine, in the manner set forth in the charter, any other facilities or activities in the field of atomic energy which would be dangerous unless controlled by the Authority, and to supervise and have complete managerial control of all such activities and facilities;

e. To have unhindered access to, and power to control, license, and inspect all other facilities which possess, utilize or produce materials which are a source of atomic energy, and all other activities which utilize or produce, or are capable of utilizing or producing, atomic energy;

f. To have the exclusive right of research in the field of atomic explosives;

g. To foster and promote the non-dangerous use and wide distribution of atomic energy for beneficial purposes under licenses or other suitable arrangements established by the Authority; and

h. Subject to the provisions of the treaty and charter, to have power to take other necessary action and to issue rules and regulations.

2. *Composition, Organization, and Location of the Atomic Development Authority.*

a. All signatory States to be members of the Authority.

b. Conditions upon which States not Members of the United Nations may become parties to the treaty.

c. The Authority to be organized to function continuously.

d. Governing Board.

(1) Composition and qualifications.

(2) Method of nomination and selection.

(3) Terms of office.

(4) Voting procedure.

(5) Powers and duties.

(6) Compensation.

e. Executive management.

(1) Number and titles of executive officers.

(2) Qualifications and method of selection.

(3) Terms of office.

(4) Powers and duties.

(5) Compensation.

f. Staff and consultants.

g. Subordinate boards, divisions, and other units.

h. Location of the Authority.

G. Provisions for enforcement should be included in the treaty as follows:

1. Definitions of conduct constituting violations.

2. Consequences of such violations, including the procedures to be followed in detecting, establishing, remedying or punishing such violations:

a. Administrative action by the Authority.

- (1) Special investigations.
- (2) Revocation or denial of licenses.
- (3) Other action.

b. Resort to judicial processes and procedures.

c. Reference of serious violations to the Security Council of the United Nations.

H. The following additional topics should be provided for in the treaty:

1. Legal capacity and privileges and immunities of the Authority in the territory of each signatory State.

2. Privileges and immunities of officials of the Authority.

3. Accountability of the Authority and its officials, and the scope of, and procedure for, review of their actions.

4. Method of financing the Authority.

5. Procedure for determination of the prices and quotas which the Authority should employ in the sale or lease of atomic energy materials or by-products.

6. Procedure for determination of the compensation to be made by the Authority in acquiring atomic energy supplies and facilities.

7. Measures to insure adequate protection and strategic location of the premises and property of the Authority.

8. Definitions of terms used in the treaty and charter.

Note on order in which topics should be considered:

Consideration of the charter first would afford an understanding of the functions to be performed by the Authority and would facilitate agreement upon the other provisions of the treaty.

U. S. MEMORANDUM 2: FUNCTIONS AND POWERS OF PROPOSED ATOMIC DEVELOPMENT AUTHORITY¹

1. A fundamental element of the United States plan for control of atomic energy² is an international Atomic Development Authority with the dual functions of:

a. preventing the use of atomic energy for destructive purposes;

b. promoting the peaceful applications of atomic energy and its by-products for the material benefit of the peoples of the world and as a contribution to their science and culture.

2. A few very basic facts afford the opportunity, and determine the pattern, for control of atomic energy. One is that the nuclear chain reaction, essential to the release of atomic energy in any form, requires the presence of uranium alone or in combination with thorium to produce fissionable material. Available knowledge indicates that this

requirement is likely to prevail for a considerable time. Another important fact is that all of the initial processes in the production of these fissionable materials and certain subsequent ones are identical whether their intended use or purpose is beneficent or dangerous.

The conclusion to be drawn from these facts is that the core of any system for control of atomic energy is effective dominion over all uranium and thorium and their fissionable derivatives.

The degree of effectiveness of such controls over these fissionable materials is the measure of the success of our undertaking. To be fully effective, such controls must attach firmly to all uranium and thorium from the moment they are produced and must remain in effect so long as they exist in a state or quantity susceptible of dangerous use. Any uranium or thorium in unauthorized hands is a threat to the entire system of control and thus to the maintenance of peace.

Since the exploitation of atomic energy for peaceful purposes necessitates operations which are, in the initial stages, identical with those needed to make atomic energy available for destructive purposes, both of these functions (1a

¹ Submitted by the U. S. Representative on the Atomic Energy Commission, Bernard M. Baruch, on July 5 and released to the press by the U. S. Delegation on the same date.

² For the text of the proposals presented to the Atomic Energy Commission by the U. S. Representative on June 14, see BULLETIN of June 23, 1946, p. 1057.

and 1b above) should be assigned to the same agency. Furthermore, an international agency with responsibilities for fostering the beneficial uses of atomic energy, as well as responsibilities for preventing its misuse, will be more effective, constructive, and workable than if it has merely duties of inspection and policing. The activities of such an agency might even result in establishing beneficial patterns of international cooperation of a new and hopeful kind.

In discussing the powers and functions of the Authority, it is helpful to distinguish between operations which are "safe" and those which are "dangerous" from the point of view of misapplication of facilities for the accomplishment of destructive ends.

3. The functions and powers of the Authority will be exercised in a variety of ways and by various means. It is impossible at this time to catalogue completely the exact forms of control which the Authority will need to employ. In general, they fall into the categories of ownership, managerial control supervision, leasing, licensing, and inspection. The Authority should, of course, be given wide power and discretion as to the particular means or combinations thereof which it deems best adapted to the accomplishment of its functions.

4. Section F of the memorandum submitted to Subcommittee No. 1 by the United States Delegation on July 2, 1946, sets forth a partial list of functions and powers of the control agency.

The following, arranged in the order of presentation contained in said memorandum, is submitted, in response to the request of our Chairman, by way of explanation and amplification of the operation of these controls:

"a. to obtain and maintain complete and exclusive control or ownership of all uranium, thorium, and other material which may be a source of atomic energy wherever present in potentially dangerous quantities whether in raw material, by-product, processed, or other form."

Initial control, at the source, of the basic materials on which atomic energy depends provides the fundamental basis for protection and facilitates control over all subsequent processing of these materials. Complete control of such basic materials is essential to the successful functioning of the Authority. Uranium is, so far as we now know, the

only substance occurring in nature in significant quantities which can maintain a chain reaction. However, thorium, in combination with uranium or its derivative plutonium, may well be useful in manufacturing chain-reacting, fissionable material. Therefore, we propose that the Authority be empowered to exercise such measures of control over the mining and processing of both uranium and thorium, as to assure its ownership of all stocks of both of these materials.

In so far as exercising actual control over natural deposits of uranium and thorium ores is concerned, the precise pattern of control suitable for various types of deposits of such materials will have to depend on the geological, mining, refining, and economic facts involved in different situations.

The Authority, in short, must have such control of mining and concentrating operations as will assure its complete and absolute ownership of all uranium and thorium actually produced. There must be no possibility of diversion from the moment the ore is removed from the ground, and the Authority must set up such actual measures of control as will assure this result.

"b. To conduct continuous investigations and surveys of sources of atomic energy throughout the world, in aid of the proper exercise of the foregoing and the Authority's other functions and powers."

The Authority should have as one of its earliest purposes to obtain and maintain complete and accurate information on world supplies of uranium and thorium. Such information as is now available is admittedly inadequate. It must be made complete and accurate and so maintained. Furthermore, the Authority should be empowered to search out new deposits and to expand its knowledge of world supplies of such materials through such surveying and prospecting activities as it may deem necessary. As a result of its own efforts and from information furnished to it by others, the Authority should keep currently informed on the discovery of new deposits.

"c. To acquire, construct, own, and exclusively operate all facilities for the production of U-235, plutonium, and such other fissionable materials as may be specified by the Authority, and to maintain supplies of fissionable materials adequate to fulfill the purposes of the Authority."

A primary purpose of the Authority is to prevent illicit use of fissionable materials. It can do this most certainly, most easily, and with least interference with political considerations and industrial operations if it is the sole manufacturer and owner of such materials. Therefore, it should own and operate all primary production facilities for the manufacture of U-235, plutonium, and such other materials as the Authority may determine. As an exception to the foregoing, the Authority may license others to operate facilities which are capable of producing only small quantities of fissionable material, and which in the judgment of the Authority do not permit the accumulation of dangerous stockpiles of atomic explosives.

The Authority will thus have control of the locations of primary production plants and of any stockpiles of materials. The geographical distribution of such plants and stockpiles should be determined in accordance with principles to be specified in the charter.

With the Authority having the sole right to manufacture fissionable materials, any attempt by others to carry on such operations, or to seize the Authority's facilities, whatever the announced intent, would, of itself, constitute a grave violation.

Title to all fissionable materials, and final control over their use should remain at all times with the Authority.

The Authority should be empowered to use fissionable materials for peaceful purposes, and to lease such materials for use by others under conditions which it deems safe, and subject to such controls as it deems necessary.

"d. To define and determine, in the manner set forth in the charter, any other facilities or activities in the field of atomic energy which would be dangerous unless controlled by the Authority, and to supervise and have complete managerial control of all such activities and facilities."

The development of atomic energy for peaceful purposes follows in much of its course a path parallel with the development of atomic weapons. Therefore, it is essential that the Authority have complete control of all operations which might facilitate atomic weapon production. This requires that the Authority also have the power to determine, and adjust from time to time, based on increased knowledge, the dividing line between "safe" and "dangerous" activities as new conditions demand. It is important to emphasize the

complicated and varying considerations involved in determining this dividing line.

Control of "dangerous" activities should be carried out to the greatest extent possible through direct operation by the Authority. An organization which is actively carrying out an operation is in a much better position to prevent diversion of material than one which merely exercises inspection and policing functions. Furthermore, while the Authority must have full power to conduct such inspection and policing activities as are necessary, the fact that it alone carries on the critical operations will reduce inspection to manageable scope, and render control of atomic energy less burdensome and irritating to nations and their citizens.

"e. To have unhindered access to, and power to control, license, and inspect all other facilities which possess, utilize, or produce materials which are a source of atomic energy, and all other activities which utilize or produce, or are capable of utilizing or producing, atomic energy."

As covered under *c* above, the Authority may lease fissionable material exclusively for peaceful purposes under proper safeguards. In all such instances, the Authority should have unhindered access to these installations and such control and opportunity for inspection as it deems necessary to prevent misuse.

The Authority may permit others to operate, under such license and control as it deems suitable, research, experimental or other installations which would produce non-dangerous amounts of fissionable materials, provided, however, that the Authority cannot under any circumstances license others to conduct research on the utilization of atomic energy for explosives.

"f. To have the exclusive right of research in the field of atomic explosives."

The Authority should have the sole right to conduct research on atomic explosives. Such research is necessary in order to keep the Authority in the forefront of knowledge in this field. This exclusive right of research does not carry with it the right to stockpile atomic weapons. This is a separate matter to be dealt with in the treaty.

The above provisions assume that the treaty will include agreements forbidding any nation, its agents, instrumentalities, and citizens from engaging in research in the field of atomic explosives.

"g. To foster and promote the non-dangerous use and wide distribution of atomic energy for beneficial purposes under licenses or other suitable arrangements established by the Authority."

While it is a prime purpose of the Authority to prevent national development or use of atomic armament, it is of importance that it foster and promote to the maximum degree scientific research, engineering development, and peaceful utilization of atomic energy for the good of mankind.

To this end, the Authority should:

- (1) conduct scientific research in this field with its own facilities, and should not only permit but encourage and actively assist others to carry on such work, under such conditions as it deems appropriate,
- (2) encourage and assist others to conduct non-dangerous developments directed towards the useful applications of atomic energy, and the advancement of science, and should carry on enough such work with its own facilities so that it may be fully informed, and may assist others at critical points,
- (3) promote the actual beneficial utilization of atomic energy. It is obviously impossible to foresee at this time what all such uses may be.

One of these which has been discussed is the generation of power. In the operation of nuclear reactors for the production of plutonium, heat is produced in considerable quantities. The large reactors now in existence are not designed to operate at high enough temperatures to produce heat energy usable as a source of power. However, it seems possible that reactors for production of fissionable material might be so designed that they would produce usable power as a by-product. Since the Authority will own and operate all reactors producing "dangerous" amounts of fissionable material, it follows that the Authority may itself become a producer of power. Power so produced could be turned over or sold to existing or future power systems for final distribution. This is a very complex problem. It would have to be done in accordance with principles contained in the charter and in conjunction with the geographical distribution of plants referred to in *c* above.

The Authority may also be empowered to lease to others dilute or so-called "denatured" fissionable material in sufficient quantities to permit them to operate atomic power plants without hazard to

peace. In such cases, the Authority would have to exercise control over the design of the atomic energy-producing part of the power plants, to prevent the possibility of conversion to "dangerous" use, to facilitate inspection, and to insure safety to personnel. The Authority should also be prepared to render engineering assistance to achieve maximum efficiency of power units. Their design, construction and operation should at all times be under Authority inspection. Such power plants must operate under license from the Authority and must use only active material owned by the Authority, and leased to them for this limited and specific purpose.

One of the most immediately useful applications of atomic energy is the production and utilization of radio-active isotopes. These also are produced in nuclear reactors, either as a main or a by-product. Reactors for the production of isotopes which are designed as "safe" units—that is, units which in the judgment of the Authority do not produce or use a dangerous amount or quality of fissionable material—may be constructed and operated by others than the Authority under conditions similar to those described above for "safe" power plants.

In the interest of preventing an unnecessary centralization of operations in the hands of the Authority, it seems desirable that the Authority should leave to others the field of non-dangerous isotope production to the maximum extent consistent with safety. The uses of isotopes, obtained either by irradiation in reactors, or from the fission products of the same, may be among the most beneficial results of the development of atomic energy. Some such applications are already under way and well-known.

Other important benefits of the release of atomic energy will be in directions as yet unpredictable. For this reason, among others, the charter of the Authority should give it enough flexibility and discretion so that it may adjust quickly to new conditions as they arise.

"h. Subject to the provisions of the treaty and charter, to have power to take other necessary action and to issue rules and regulations."

In order that the Authority may properly carry out its functions it should possess the following rights and privileges: (1) the unhindered use of established postal, telephone, radio communication, and telegraph facilities; (2) the right to operate its own system of radio communication

exclusively for its own business; (3) the unhindered movement of its personnel in and between installations and to any other points, across and within national boundaries in connection with proper discharge of their functions; and (4) the use of transportation facilities in and between the various nations for the unhindered movement of its personnel, supplies and equipment.

5. Adequate performance of its functions by the Authority requires that national authorities for control and development of atomic energy should be subordinate to the Authority to the extent necessary for its effective operation. However, in carrying out the functions of the Authority, there should be as little interference as possible with the economic plans and the private, corporate, and state relationships in the several countries involved.

6. Obviously, the controls outlined in this memorandum cannot spring into existence full grown and complete upon the legal establishment of the Authority. The process of putting them into effect will necessarily extend over a considerable period of time. It will have to be done by stages provided in the treaty or charter and according to prearranged schedules based on sound and logical sequence leading to full and effective establishment of all controls.

7. The exercise by the Authority of the controls referred to above will call for a wide variety of administrative decisions based upon fair, sound and responsible judgments. In suggesting the conferring of these powers upon the Authority, it is not intended that their exercise by the Authority should be absolute, unlimited and free from review. Obviously, as to certain specific fields and functions to be defined in the treaty, the Authority's decisions would be final. In others they

would not. It is our intention in dealing with the relation of the Authority to other elements of the United Nations to treat this phase of the subject more fully, and also to present proposals for enforcement of the provisions of the treaty and charter as well as for sanctions for violations.

8. As a function of its control operations, the Authority should make provision for the rendering of frequent and detailed reports to the appropriate organs of the United Nations and to the constituent nations, embodying the results of its researches, new discoveries in the atomic field, the level of its material stockpiles, new locations of ores, and all other important and pertinent information. In addition, properly accredited representatives of the United Nations and of the constituent nations should be permitted, under suitable regulations, to inspect the plants, properties, records and operations of the Authority.

9. For the effective operation of the Authority in the manner contemplated, it is essential that the Authority be composed of personnel of the highest character and ability. The affirmative character of the functions of the Authority in dealing both with "dangerous" operations and the dissemination of scientific data of a beneficial nature require, and should assure, that the Authority attract such personnel.

10. Functions and powers and controls are to a certain extent reflections of the same subject from different angles. In this memorandum, devoted predominantly to controls, the repressive functions of the Authority have received more attention than its functions in the stimulation of research and of the beneficial uses of atomic energy. We want to emphasize, therefore, that we lay importance upon the Authority's activities in both fields.

U. S. MEMORANDUM 3: RELATIONS BETWEEN THE ATOMIC DEVELOPMENT AUTHORITY AND THE ORGANS OF THE UNITED NATIONS ¹

In response to the request of the Chairman, the representative of the United States submits this memorandum enlarging upon Paragraph D. 1.

¹ In further exposition of the U. S. position, the U. S. Representative on the United Nations Atomic Energy Commission, Bernard M. Baruch, submitted this memorandum on July 12; it was released to the press by the U. S. delegation on the same date.

of his memorandum of July 2, 1946, which reads as follows:

"D. The treaty should contain provisions:

1. Defining the relations between the Authority and the Security Council, the General Assembly, the International Court of Justice, and the other organs of the United Nations."

The contents of this memorandum also relate

to the matters dealt with in the Chairman's memorandum, submitted at the last meeting of the Subcommittee on July 8, 1946, which has been of great aid to us in the preparation of this memorandum.

The nature of the relations of the Atomic Development Authority with the various organs of the United Nations obviously will depend upon the powers and functions which the Authority receives and upon its status within the framework of the United Nations. Once these are made clear, the problems involved in the adjustment of the Authority to the organizational structure of the United Nations become clear and can be solved.

Three general considerations appear at the outset.

1. The first arises from the fact that the question of control and development of atomic energy was neither considered nor dealt with in the framing of the Charter of the United Nations. This circumstance, however, should not be permitted to prevent bringing within the framework of their Charter a matter of such vital common concern to the members of the United Nations. On the contrary, if the Charter is to survive, it must be susceptible of adaptation to meet new needs dictated by new conditions. The control and development of atomic energy, therefore, should not lead to the formation of an international agency unrelated to, or outside of, the United Nations, but rather to one fashioned in sound relationship to the Charter and to the organs thereby created.

2. Secondly, none of the existing organs of the United Nations possesses the managerial, proprietary, inspecting, and licensing powers necessary to effective international control and development of atomic energy. A new agency therefore is necessary. Moreover, even if the Charter could be construed to provide for a subsidiary organ created by collective action of several of the existing organs and possessing an aggregate of powers delegated by each of them, such subsidiary organ would not have adequate powers under the Charter. Accordingly, the Authority, as a new organ, should be established by treaty granting it all necessary powers and defining its relation with the existing organs of the United Nations.

3. The third general consideration concerns the degree of autonomy of the Authority. Having in mind the essentially non-political character of the Authority, the presumably high caliber of its personnel, and the necessity for wide discretion

on its part in order to achieve its purposes of control and development, great weight and a considerable degree of finality should be given to its determinations, orders and practices. Where their consideration is required by another organ, they should be accepted unless clearly erroneous or beyond the scope of the Authority's powers.

Three categories of decisions may be mentioned. They will, of course, need careful definition. In general they are (1) Administrative matters on which the decisions of the Authority are final; (2) Decisions on other matters not of sufficient gravity to constitute a threat to the peace. These might be subject to review, possibly by a board established for this purpose. Its decisions, in turn, should be enforced by the Security Council as procedural matters, for, regardless of the original seriousness of the offense, failure to respond to the proper orders of the Authority creates a situation demanding the attention of the Security Council. We consider, hereinafter, in its appropriate place the relation of the Authority to the International Court of Justice; (3) Serious offenses constituting a threat to the peace. These, as hereinafter outlined, fall within the jurisdiction of the Security Council and the provision of Article 51 of the Charter.

One further comment is in order before taking up in detail the relation of the Authority to the several organs of the United Nations. Article 2, paragraph 7 of the Charter will not be infringed by the Authority. This paragraph is confined to matters "essentially within the domestic jurisdiction of any state". Specific recognition in the treaty that control of atomic energy cannot be essentially domestic but rather predominantly international would be sufficient to render this paragraph inapplicable.

The respective functions of the Authority and of the principal organs of the United Nations, when viewed in the light of the foregoing considerations, indicate the general relationships which should prevail.

They are outlined in the following paragraphs.

a. The General Assembly

The General Assembly is composed of all members of the United Nations. Its Composition, Functions and Powers, Voting and Procedure are contained in Chapter IV, Articles 9-22 of the Charter of the United Nations. Provisions with respect to the General Assembly also appear in other parts of the Charter. The character of the

General Assembly and its importance in the whole concept of the Charter indicate, amongst others, the following respects in which the Authority may properly be related to it.

(1) The Authority should submit periodic and, when necessary, special reports to the Assembly concerning the Authority's activities, programs, and information.

(2) The provisions for discussion and recommendation by the Assembly contained in the Charter should be construed to include matters pertaining to the Authority.

(3) The Assembly also might appropriately have a role in connection with the budget of the Authority.

b. The Security Council

The Charter of the United Nations confers on the Security Council primary responsibility for the maintenance of international peace and security. (Chapters V, VI, VII, VIII, and XII). Many of the important features of the control and development of atomic energy, though by no means all of them, are intimately associated with the maintenance of international peace and security. With respect to these features, the Authority and the Security Council must be brought into close relationship.

The following particulars in this regard are suggested:

(1) In the event of an occurrence within the area of the Authority's jurisdiction constituting a threat to the peace, breach of the peace or act of aggression, such occurrence should immediately be certified by the Authority to the Security Council, the Assembly, and the signatory states. The treaty should establish this category of offenses and the conditions surrounding them. For purpose of illustration, they might include violations such as those specifically mentioned by Mr. Baruch in the United States proposal, viz:

- “(a) Illegal possession or use of an atomic bomb;
- “(b) Illegal possession, or separation, of atomic material suitable for use in an atomic bomb;
- “(c) Seizure of any plant or other property belonging to, or licensed by, the Authority;
- “(d) Wilful interference with the activities of the Authority;
- “(e) Creation or operation of dangerous projects in a manner contrary to, or in the

absence of a license granted by the Authority.”

The controls established by the treaty would be wholly ineffectual if, in any such situations, to be defined in the treaty, the enforcement of security provisions could be prevented by the vote of a state which has signed the treaty. Any other conception would render the whole principle of veto ridiculous. It is intended to be an instrument for the protection of nations, not a shield behind which deception and criminal acts can be performed with impunity. This in no way impairs the doctrine of unanimity. No state need be an unwilling party to the treaty. But every state which freely and willingly becomes a party to the treaty, by this act, solemnly and firmly binds itself to abide by its undertakings. Such undertakings would become illusory, if the guarantee against their breach resided solely in the conscience of the one who commits the breach.

All parties to the treaty and all peoples of the world, must have protection of a final and dependable character against the terrible consequences of the destructive use of atomic energy. Such protection requires international machinery which can and will function quickly—machinery which does not permit the offender to be protected by his own or another's negation of the exercise of joint power essential to the security of all. Particularly is this true, with respect to matters which become essentially procedural once the Authority has made its certification based on the substantive provision of law established by the treaty.

The relation of the Authority to the Security Council should recognize this principle. Subject to this principle, the Security Council should have full jurisdiction over serious violations certified to it by the Authority. This in no manner impairs or diminishes the power or the *modus operandi* of the Security Council in any other situation.

As the United States Representative on the Atomic Energy Commission stated at the opening session:

“I want to make very plain that I am concerned here with the veto power only as it affects this particular problem. There must be no veto to protect those who violate their solemn agreements not to develop or use atomic energy for destructive purposes.”

Voluntary relinquishment of the veto on ques-

tions relating to a specific weapon previously outlawed by unanimous agreement because of its uniquely destructive character, in no wise involves any compromise of the principle of unanimity of action as applied to general problems or to particular situations not foreseeable and therefore not susceptible of advance unanimous agreement.

What has been said above must be emphasized. It is not intended to limit the powers, authority, responsibility or jurisdiction of the Security Council to maintain international peace and security. It is quite possible that in a major case of aggression, violation of the atomic treaty and the rules of the Authority may play an incidental part. Nothing herein suggested is intended to restrict or limit the overriding powers of the Security Council to deal with such matters unaffected by the incidental inclusion of atomic energy considerations as part of the problems.

(2) It is impossible to treat this subject without reference to Article 51 of the Charter, which provides as follows:

"Nothing in the present Charter shall impair the inherent right of individual or collective self-defense if an armed attack occurs against a Member of the United Nations, until the Security Council has taken the measures necessary to maintain international peace and security. Measures taken by Members in the exercise of this right of self-defense shall be immediately reported to the Security Council".

Interpreting its provisions with respect to atomic energy matters, it is clear that if atomic weapons were employed as part of an "armed attack", the rights reserved by the nations to themselves under 51 would be applicable. It is equally clear that an "armed attack" is now something entirely different from what it was prior to the discovery of atomic weapons. It would therefore seem to be both important and appropriate under present conditions that the treaty define "armed attack" in a manner appropriate to atomic weapons and include in the definition not simply the actual dropping of an atomic bomb, but also certain steps in themselves preliminary to such action.

(3) The Authority may be required to carry out certain decisions by the Security Council with respect to which the assistance of the Authority is deemed appropriate.

(4) Reports and other information should be

submitted by the Authority to the Council concerning the Authority's activities, programs, and information, particularly as they bear upon the maintenance of international peace and security.

(5) Consultation by the Military Staff Committee with the Authority on questions relating to the military repercussions of the Authority's plans of action should be provided for in the treaty.

c. The International Court of Justice

The International Court of Justice is the principal judicial organ of the United Nations. Relations between the Authority and the Court are worthy of consideration in connection with aiding the functioning of the Authority. It is unfortunate that the World Court would not be fully open to the Authority as a litigant without amendment to the Charter. However, the field of advisory opinions would be open and should be availed of in appropriate cases.

In no case should the jurisdiction of the Court exclude or delay action by the Security Council nor diminish the primary responsibilities of the Security Council in maintaining international peace and security. The following suggestions are made with this understanding.

(1) The Authority might be authorized to request the Court to give advisory opinions on any legal questions arising within the scope of the Authority's activities; including any questions of proper interpretation or application of provisions of the treaty.

(2) The Authority might be authorized to be a party in cases before the Court involving legal disputes arising under the treaty.

(3) The treaty might include provisions that the Authority and the signatory states would be bound to submit to the jurisdiction of the Court in all legal disputes defined by the treaty which are referred to the Court in the manner provided, and that the judgments of the Court should be enforced by the Security Council.

d. The Trusteeship Council

Mutual consultation and exchange of information between the Authority and the Trusteeship Council should be authorized concerning atomic energy development and control activities, facilities, and resources, located in trust territories or closely related to proper administration of such territories.

e. The Secretariat

Relations between the Authority and the Secretariat do not seem to require detailed treatment at this time.

In conclusion, the foregoing indicates the manner in which appropriate relations between the Authority and the United States might be established in accordance with the principles stated by Mr. Baruch in the United States proposal.

U. S. Representative to UN Accorded Rank of Ambassador

[Released to the press July 11]

The President has accorded Herschel V. Johnson, United States Deputy Representative to the United Nations, the personal rank of Ambassador.

First Meeting of Atomic Commission's Working Committee

[Released to the press by the UN Department
of Public Information June 28]

The first meeting of the Working Committee of the Atomic Energy Commission opened at 10.42 a.m. on June 28 at Hunter College in the Bronx, with the following delegates present:

Australia	HERBERT V. EVATT, <i>Chairman</i>
Brazil	Capt. ALVARO ALBERTO DA MOTTA SILVA
Canada	Gen. A. G. L. McNAUGHTON
China	H. R. WEI
Egypt	Col. MOHAMED BEY KHALIFA
France	FRANÇOIS LACOSTE
Mexico	MANUEL SANDOVAL VALLARTA
Netherlands	H. A. KRAMERS
Poland	JERZY MICHALOWSKI
U.S.S.R.	ANDREI A. GROMYKO
U.K.	Sir ALEXANDER CADOGAN
U.S.	BERNARD M. BARUCH

Following a brief discussion of working methods, Dr. Evatt called on Mr. Baruch as the first speaker.

After urging the Committee to proceed "with utmost speed" since "time presses and each day finds the world less secure," Mr. Baruch presented

to each member a chart,¹ based on statements made before the Commission, analyzing 20 separate points on which the 12 members are in agreement or disagreement. He emphasized that this was in no sense a U. S. proposal, but merely an effort to give members a comprehensive view of ideas so far put forth.

On the suggestion of the chairman, the Working Committee agreed unanimously to appoint a small "Subcommittee Number I" to be named by the chairman after consulting with the delegations. The task of this subcommittee will be to study all proposals put forth and to prepare the framework of a possible plan by presenting to the Working Committee a list of headings or topics to be considered. For example, it will study not only the best means of controlling raw materials, but also the type of control required. Its main duty will be to report back to the Working Committee as soon as possible and thus facilitate the work of that body.

The chairman announced that he would call a full meeting of the Atomic Energy Commission next Wednesday at 3 p.m. in the Henry Hudson Hotel to consider rules of procedure.

The Working Committee adjourned at 12.08 p.m.

¹ See accompanying chart folded in this issue of the BULLETIN.

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July 11]

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AREAS OF AGREEMENT

ITEM	UNITED STATES	U. S. S. R.	UNITED KINGDOM (Note: The U. K. accepted the U. S. scheme as the basis for consideration.)	CANADA (Note: Canada expressed agreement with the principles on which the U. S. proposals were made.)	CHINA (Note: China accepted the U. S. proposals as the basis for consideration.)
1. <i>Fostering the Use of Atomic Energy for Peaceful Purposes Only.</i>	1. <i>Yes</i>	1. <i>Yes</i>	1. <i>Yes</i>	1. <i>Yes</i>	1. <i>Yes</i>
2. <i>Establishment of an ADA to Control the Field of Atomic Energy.</i>	2. <i>Yes</i> . Control under ADA "through various forms of ownership, dominion, licenses, operation, inspection, research, and management by competent personnel."	2. Depends on conclusions reached by the drafting committee proposed by the U. S. S. R. in considering "measures, systems, and organization of control in the use of atomic energy". The door is open for negotiation.	2. <i>Yes</i> . Particular emphasis on positive role of ADA.	2. <i>Yes</i>	2. <i>Yes</i> . Need to constitute the ADA on a broad and democratic basis—a substantial representation of small nations.
3. <i>Complete Information on Raw Materials.</i>	3. <i>Yes</i> . By the ADA	3. <i>Yes</i> . By interchange of information between countries on forms, sources, and the location of raw materials.	3. <i>Yes</i>	3. <i>Yes</i>	3. <i>Yes</i>
4. <i>Dominion over Raw Materials</i>	4. <i>Yes</i> . By the ADA	4. — Same comment as 2 (above)	4. <i>Yes</i>	4. <i>Yes</i>	4. <i>Yes</i>
5. <i>Ownership and Managerial Control over Primary Production Plants.</i>	5. <i>Yes</i> . By the ADA. Also sole ownership of the product of such plants.	5. — Same comment as 2 (above)	5. <i>Yes</i>	5. <i>Yes</i>	5. <i>Yes</i>
6. <i>Research on Atomic Explosives</i>	6. <i>Yes</i> . Sole right in ADA	6. — Same comment as 2 (above)	6. <i>Yes</i>	6. <i>Yes</i>	6. <i>Yes</i>
7. <i>Strategic Distribution of Activities and Materials.</i>	7. <i>Yes</i> . Of those entrusted exclusively to ADA.	7. — Same comment as 2 (above)	7. <i>Yes</i>	7. <i>Yes</i>	7. <i>Yes</i>
8. <i>Definition of Dangerous and Non-Dangerous Activities.</i>	8. <i>Yes</i> . Function of ADA	8. — Same comment as 2 (above)	8. <i>Yes</i>	8. <i>Yes</i>	8. <i>Yes</i>
9. <i>Operation of Dangerous Activities</i>	9. <i>Yes</i> . Sole right in ADA	9. — Same comment as 2 (above)	9. <i>Yes</i>	9. <i>Yes</i>	9. <i>Yes</i>
10. <i>Inspection</i>	10. <i>Yes</i> . Function of ADA	10. — Same comment as 2 (above)	10. <i>Yes</i> . Clear necessity indicated.	10. <i>Yes</i>	10. <i>Yes</i>
11. <i>Freedom of Access</i>	11. <i>Yes</i> . ADA	11. — Same comment as 2 (above)	11. <i>Yes</i>	11. <i>Yes</i>	11. <i>Yes</i>
12. <i>Personnel on an International Basis.</i>	12. <i>Yes</i>	12. — Same comment as 2 (above)	12. <i>Yes</i>	12. <i>Yes</i>	12. <i>Yes</i>
13. <i>Progress by Stages</i>	13. <i>Yes</i> . Progressive assumption of control by the ADA should be set forth in the charter.	13. — Same comment as 2 (above). By reference to the Jan. 24 Resolution of the General Assembly establishing the AEC which contemplates progress by stages the U. S. S. R. proposal gives indirect assent to this principle.	13. <i>Yes</i> . Proceed with exchange of information, as soon as possible.	13. <i>Yes</i> . First emphasis should be placed on exchange of information.	13. <i>Yes</i>
14. <i>Disclosure of Information</i>	14. <i>Yes</i> . In stages as the ADA is developed.	14. — Same comment as 13 (above)	14. <i>Yes</i>	14. <i>Yes</i>	14. <i>Yes</i>
15. <i>Yielding of National Control in Stages.</i>	15. <i>Yes</i> . As the ADA becomes operative	15. — Same comment as 2 (above)	15. <i>Yes</i>	15. <i>Yes</i>	15. <i>Yes</i>
16. <i>Subordination of such National Control Bodies as may be Established to an International Body.</i>	16. <i>Yes</i>	16. — Same as comment 2 (above)	16. <i>Yes</i>	16. <i>Yes</i>	16. <i>Yes</i>
17. <i>Sanctions.</i> a. <i>Against nations</i>	a. <i>Yes</i> . "Penalties of as serious a nature as the nations may wish and as immediate and certain in their execution as possible . . ." against: (a) Illegal possession or use of an atomic bomb. (b) Illegal possession or separation of atomic material suitable for use in an atomic bomb. (c) Seizure of any plant or other property belonging to or licensed by the ADA. (d) Willful interference with the activities of the ADA. (e) Creation or operation of dangerous projects in a manner contrary to, or in the absence of a license granted by the ADA.	a. <i>Yes</i> . "Any violation is a serious crime against humanity." Drafting committee to prepare recommendations on: (a) "The elaboration and creation of methods to forbid the production and use of such weapons destined for mass destruction." (b) "Measures, systems, and organizations of control in the use of atomic energy to insure the observance of the conditions above mentioned in the international agreement for the outlawing of atomic weapons." (c) The elaboration of a system of sanctions for application against the unlawful use of atomic energy."	a. <i>Yes</i> . Given particular stress.	a. <i>Yes</i>	a. <i>Yes</i>
b. <i>Against individuals</i>	b. <i>Yes</i> . "The U. N. can prescribe individual responsibility and punishment on the principles applied at"	b. <i>No</i> . Punishments of individuals by their respective governments.	b. <i>Yes</i>	b. <i>Yes</i>	b. <i>Yes</i>
5. <i>Ownership and Managerial Control</i>	5. <i>Yes</i> . By the ADA. Also sole owner-	5. — Same comment as 2 (above)	5. <i>Yes</i>	5. <i>Yes</i>	5. <i>Yes</i>

MENT AND DISAGREEMENT ¹

COUNTRY							
	BRAZIL (Note: Brazil voiced full approval of the principles of the U. S. plan.)	MEXICO (Note: Proposals generally acceptable with exception of 4 below.)	FRANCE	POLAND (Note: Poland considered the outlawry of atomic weapons by convention to be the essential first step. This should be followed by suitable domestic regulatory and enforcement legislation and the eventual establishment of a system of international controls, inspection, and sanctions)	NETHERLANDS (Note: The Netherlands made no comment on specific proposals but stated: "We believe that the American and Russian plan provide us with the necessary starting point.")	EGYPT (Note: Egypt considered the American plan an excellent basis for consideration and agreed in principle with what it prescribed.)	AUSTRALIA (Note: "The highly complex problem which confronts us should be considered as a whole. From this point of view...the plan submitted by the U. S. representative offers a sound basis for planning.")
1. Yes	1. Yes	1. Yes	1. Yes	1. Yes		1. Yes	1. Yes.
2. Yes. Special Stress.	2. Yes	2. Yes	2. Yes. The sub-committee should study "the structure and the status of the international authority designed, on the one hand, the strict application [of the convention and on the other, the placing at the disposal of all countries of the world atomic energy."	2. Eventually. See note above .		2. Yes	2. Yes. "As part of a single plan."
3. Yes	3. Yes	3. Yes	3. Yes	3. Eventually. See note above .		3. Yes	3. Yes. Particular stress.
4. Yes	4. — The question of managerial control of deposits of uranium ores would require separate and careful consideration.	4. Yes. "And it should be demanded" that other countries should themselves make the first step in placing their resources in raw materials under international control.	4. Eventually. See note above .	4. Eventually. See note above .		4. Yes	4. Yes. Particular stress.
5. Yes	5. Yes	5. Yes	5. Yes. Subject to further study. See (2) above.	5. Eventually. See note above .		5. Yes	5. Yes. Particular stress.
6. Yes	6. Yes	6. Yes	6. Yes. Subject to further study. See (2) above.	6. Eventually. See note above .		6. Yes	6. Yes.
7. Yes	7. Yes	7. Yes	7. Yes. Subject to further study. See (2) above.	7. Eventually. See note above .		7. Yes	7. Yes. Particular stress.
8. Yes	8. Yes	8. Yes	8. Yes. Subject to further study. See (2) above.	8. Eventually. See note above .		8. Yes	8. Yes. Particular stress.
9. Yes	9. Yes	9. Yes	9. Yes. Subject to further study. See (2) above.	9. Eventually. See note above .		9. Yes	9. Yes.
10. Yes	10. Yes	10. Yes	10. Yes. Subject to further study. See (2) above.	10. Eventually. See note above .		10. Yes	10. Yes. Particular stress.
11. Yes	11. Yes	11. Yes	11. Yes. Subject to further study. See (2) above.	11. Eventually. See note above .		11. Yes	11. Yes.
12. Yes	12. Yes	12. Yes	12. Yes. Subject to further study. See (2) above.	12. Eventually. See note above .		12. Yes	12. Yes.
13. Yes	13. Yes	13. Yes	13. Yes. "The notion of progress by stages concerns . . . not only the exchange of scientific information . . . but also the establishment of a system of control for atomic energy, the elimination of atomic arms, and the establishment of safeguards . . ."	13. Yes. In general terms		13. Yes	13. Yes. Particular stress.
14. Yes	14. Yes	14. Yes	14. Yes. See (13) above	14. Yes. After outlawry of atomic weapons.		14. Yes	14. Yes. In stages.
15. Yes	15. Yes	15. Yes	15. Yes. France "will submit to the rules which may be judged the best as soon as these rules are adopted by the United Nations, to ensure throughout the world the control of atomic energy."	15. —		15. Yes	15. Yes.
16. Yes	16. Yes	16. Yes	16. Yes. See (15) above.	16. —		16. Yes	16. Yes.
a. Yes	a. Yes	17. (a) Yes. Efficacious sanctions shall be applied to anyone violating these obligations.	17. (a) — At a late stage, "consider the problem of international sanctions" to supplement gradually internal control and sanctions.			17. (a) Yes	17. (a) Yes.
b. Yes. Special Stress.	b. Yes	(b) Yes. Same as (a).	(b) — Only by domestic legislation.			(b) Yes	(b) Yes.

	b. Against individuals	b. Yes. "The U. N. can prescribe individual responsibility and punishment on the principles applied at	unlawful use of atomic energy."	b. No. Punishments of individuals by their respective governments.	b. Yes	b. Yes	b. Yes
5. Ownership and Managerial Control over Primary Production Plants.	5. Yes. By the ADA. Also sole ownership of the product of such plants.	5. — Same comment as 2 (above) . .	5. Yes	5. Yes	5. Yes	5. Yes	5. Yes
6. Research on Atomic Explosives . .	6. Yes. Sole right in ADA	6. — Same comment as 2 (above) . .	6. Yes	6. Yes	6. Yes	6. Yes	6. Yes
7. Strategic Distribution of Activities and Materials.	7. Yes. Of those entrusted exclusively to ADA.	7. — Same comment as 2 (above) . .	7. Yes	7. Yes	7. Yes	7. Yes	7. Yes
8. Definition of Dangerous and Non-Dangerous Activities.	8. Yes. Function of ADA	8. — Same comment as 2 (above) . .	8. Yes	8. Yes	8. Yes	8. Yes	8. Yes
9. Operation of Dangerous Activities . .	9. Yes. Sole right in ADA	9. — Same comment as 2 (above) . .	9. Yes	9. Yes	9. Yes	9. Yes	9. Yes
10. Inspection	10. Yes. Function of ADA	10. — Same comment as 2 (above) . .	10. Yes. Clear necessity indicated.	10. Yes	10. Yes	10. Yes	10. Yes
11. Freedom of Access	11. Yes. ADA	11. — Same comment as 2 (above) . .	11. Yes	11. Yes	11. Yes	11. Yes	11. Yes
12. Personnel on an International Basis.	12. Yes	12. — Same comment as 2 (above) . .	12. Yes	12. Yes	12. Yes	12. Yes	12. Yes
13. Progress by Stages	13. Yes. Progressive assumption of control by the ADA should be set forth in the charter.	13. — Same comment as 2 (above). By reference to the Jan. 24 Resolution of the General Assembly establishing the AEC which contemplates progress by stages the U. S. S. R. proposal gives indirect assent to this principle.	13. Yes. Proceed with exchange of information, as soon as possible.	13. Yes. First emphasis should be placed on exchange of information.	13. Yes	13. Yes	13. Yes
14. Disclosure of Information	14. Yes. In stages as the ADA is developed.	14. — Same comment as 13 (above) . .	14. Yes	14. Yes	14. Yes	14. Yes	14. Yes
15. Yielding of National Control in Stages.	15. Yes. As the ADA becomes operative.	15. — Same comment as 2 (above) . .	15. Yes	15. Yes	15. Yes	15. Yes	15. Yes
16. Subordination of such National Control Bodies as may be Established to an International Body.	16. Yes	16. — Same as comment 2 (above) . .	16. Yes	16. Yes	16. Yes	16. Yes	16. Yes
17. Sanctions. a. Against nations	a. Yes. "Penalties of as serious a nature as the nations may wish and as immediate and certain in their execution as possible . . ." against. (a) Illegal possession or use of an atomic bomb. (b) Illegal possession or separation of atomic material suitable for use in an atomic bomb. (c) Seizure of any plant or other property belonging to or licensed by the ADA. (d) Wilful interference with the activities of the ADA. (e) Creation or operation of dangerous projects in a manner contrary to, or in the absence of a license granted by the ADA. b. Yes. "The U. N. can prescribe individual responsibility and punishment on the principles applied at Nuremburg."	a. Yes. "Any violation is a serious crime against humanity." Drafting committee to prepare recommendations on: (a) "The elaboration and creation of methods to forbid the production and use of such weapons destined for mass destruction." (b) "Measures, systems, and organizations of control in the use of atomic energy to insure the observance of the conditions above mentioned in the international agreement for the outlawing of atomic weapons." (c) The elaboration of a system of sanctions for application against the unlawful use of atomic energy." b. No. Punishments of individuals by their respective governments.	a. Yes. Given particular stress.	a. Yes	a. Yes	a. Yes	a. Yes
b. Against individuals	b. Yes	b. Yes	b. Yes	b. Yes	b. Yes	b. Yes	b. Yes
18. Abolition of Veto in this Field . .	18. Yes. There must be no veto to protect those who violate their solemn agreements not to develop or use atomic energy for destructive purposes.	18. No. The Atomic Energy Commission is an organ of the U. N., working under the direction of the Security Council. "Efforts made to undermine the activity of the Security Council, including efforts to undermine the unanimity of the Members . . . upon questions of substance are incompatible with the interests of the United Nations . . . and . . . should be resisted."	18. Yes	18. Yes. "We have never liked the Veto."	18. Yes. Strong emphasis on this point. We will support abandoning the Veto in this field, "If all the other members having this veto under the charter agree to do likewise."	18. Yes	18. Yes
19. Outlawry of Atomic Weapons . . .	19. Yes. Timing—After an adequate system for control of atomic energy has been set up and proven effective and after punishments for violations have been established. a. Yes. Timing—same as above b. Yes. Pursuant to the terms of the treaty. c. Yes	19. Yes. Timing—Immediately on the ratification of a treaty. a. Yes. Timing—same as above b. Yes. Timing—within a period of 3 months after ratification of the treaty. c. No	19. Yes a. Yes b. Yes c. Yes	19. Yes a. Yes b. Yes c. Yes	19. Yes a. Yes b. Yes c. Yes	19. Yes a. Yes b. Yes c. Yes	19. Yes a. Yes b. Yes c. Yes
20. Eventual Extension of Controls to other Weapons of Mass Destruction.	20. Yes. Illegal users of other weapons—bacteriological, biological, gas—perhaps—and why not?—against war itself.	20. Yes. Use of gas and bacteriological methods has "already been outlawed by common accord between the civilized peoples." Committee to make recommendations on outlawing use of these other weapons.	20. Yes	20. Yes	20. Yes	20. Yes	20. Yes

¹ This chart was distributed on June 28 by Mr. Baruch to each member of the Working Committee of the Atomic Energy Commission. See p. 106.

	6. Yes	6. Yes	6. Yes. Subject to further study. See (2) above.	6. Eventually. See note above	6. Yes	6. Yes.
	7. Yes	7. Yes	7. Yes. Subject to further study. See (2) above.	7. Eventually. See note above	7. Yes	7. Yes. Particular stress.
	8. Yes	8. Yes	8. Yes. Subject to further study. See (2) above.	8. Eventually. See note above	8. Yes	8. Yes. Particular stress.
	9. Yes	9. Yes	9. Yes. Subject to further study. See (2) above.	9. Eventually. See note above	9. Yes	9. Yes.
	10. Yes	10. Yes	10. Yes. Subject to further study. See (2) above.	10. Eventually. See note above	10. Yes	10. Yes. Particular stress.
	11. Yes	11. Yes	11. Yes. Subject to further study. See (2) above.	11. Eventually. See note above	11. Yes	11. Yes.
	12. Yes	12. Yes	12. Yes. Subject to further study. See (2) above.	12. Eventually. See note above	12. Yes	12. Yes.
	13. Yes	13. Yes	13. Yes. "The notion of progress by stages concerns . . . not only the exchange of scientific information . . . but also the establishment of a system of control for atomic energy, the elimination of atomic arms, and the establishment of safeguards . . ."	13. Yes. In general terms	13. Yes	13. Yes. Particular stress.
	14. Yes	14. Yes	14. Yes. See (13) above	14. Yes. After outlawry of atomic weapons.	14. Yes	14. Yes. In stages.
	15. Yes	15. Yes	15. Yes. France "will submit to the rules which may be judged the best as soon as these rules are adopted by the United Nations, to ensure throughout the world the control of atomic energy."	15. —	15. Yes	15. Yes.
	16. Yes	16. Yes	16. Yes. See (15) above.	16. —	16. Yes	16. Yes.
	a. Yes	a. Yes	17. (a) Yes. Efficacious sanctions shall be applied to anyone violating these obligations.	17. (a) — At a late stage, "consider the problem of international sanctions" to supplement gradually internal control and sanctions.	17. (a) Yes	17. (a) Yes.
	b. Yes. Special Stress.	b. Yes	(b) Yes. Same as (a).	(b) — Only by domestic legislation.	(b) Yes	(b) Yes.
alpha-point. support the Veto "If all members to un-agree"	18. Yes	18. Yes. Explicit instructions to approve elimination of veto power on this matter.	18. —. No reference	18. —. No comment made.	18. Yes. "We endorse . . . with all power the American proposal . . . concerning the veto question."	18. Yes. No reason "why any particular nation or nations should be accorded the right of veto over the agreed majority of the Authority."
	19. Yes	19. Yes	19. Yes	19. Yes. Timing—Immediately as the first step.	19. Yes. Strong emphasis.	19. Yes.
	a. Yes	a. Yes	a. Yes	a. Yes. Timing as above.		a. Yes.
	b. Yes	b. Yes	b. Yes	b. Yes. Timing—within a period of 3 months after ratification of a convention.		b. Yes.
	c. Yes	c. Yes	c. Yes. The notion of control and guarantee of observance are inseparable in the convention itself."	c. No. At least not at first. (Note: Poland recommends that "the prohibition of the production, keeping and use of atomic weapons be written into the constitutions of all Member States of the United Nations.")		c. Yes.
	20. Yes	20. Yes	20. Yes	20. Yes. Action by national parliaments.	20. Yes	20. Yes.



International Organizations and Conferences

Calendar of Meetings

Council of Foreign Ministers:		
Meeting of Foreign Ministers	Paris	June 15-July 12
Meeting of Deputies	Paris	July 12
Far Eastern Commission	Washington	February 26
Allied-Swedish Negotiations for German External Assets	Washington	May 31
International Emergency Food Council	Washington	June 20
U.S.-Mexican Discussions on Air Services Agreement	Mexico City	June 24
International Institute of Agriculture: Meeting of the General Assembly	Rome	July 8
Conference on German-Owned Patents Outside Germany	London	July 10
U.S.-British Cabinet Committee on Palestine and Related Problems	London	July 12
International Meeting of the Sugar Council	London	July 15
Peace Conference	Paris	July 29
International Council of Scientific Unions: Meeting of the General Assembly	London	July 24-27
International Wheat Council	Washington	July 15
International Union of Geodesy and Geophysics:		
Extraordinary General Assembly	Cambridge, England	July 29-August 2
UNRRA: Second Half of Fifth Session	Geneva	August 5
The United Nations:		
Security Council	New York	March 25
Military Staff Committee	New York	March 25
Economic and Social Council (Second Session)	New York	May 25-June 21
Commission on Atomic Energy	New York	June 14
International Health Conference	New York	June 19
UNESCO: Preparatory Commission	London	July 5-13
General Assembly: Second Part of First Session	New York	September 3

The dates in the calendar are as of July 14.

Activities and Developments

The President's Cabinet Committee on Palestine and Related Problems left on July 10 for London, where they will discuss with the British Cabinet group the implementation of the report by the Anglo-American Committee of Inquiry regarding the admission of 100,000 Jews to Palestine. Henry F. Grady, chairman of the American group and alternate for the Secretary of State, was accompanied by Goldthwaite H. Dorr and Herbert E. Gaston, alternates for the Secretaries of War and Treasury.

Accompanying members of the mission are Leslie L. Rood, Secretary General; Paul L. Hanna, Political Adviser; Raymond F. Mikesell and Henry H. Villard, Economic and Financial Advisers; Frederick V. Loud, Displaced Persons Ad-

viser; Geoffrey W. Lewis, Transportation Adviser; Lt. Col. F. W. Coleman, Military Adviser; and C. A. Hathaway, Engineering Adviser.

The Committee was expected to arrive in London on July 11 and to begin discussions on Friday, July 12.

UNRRA Tour. The Director General of UNRRA, F. H. La Guardia, the Soviet Member of the UNRRA Council, N. I. Feonov, and the American Alternate on the UNRRA Council, C. Tyler Wood, left on July 14 for a tour of Europe before the meeting of the Fifth Session of the Council in Geneva. It is expected that their itinerary will include Belgrade, Warsaw, points in Germany, Athens, Rome, Cairo, Paris, Trieste, and Arolsen.

Designating Public International Organizations Entitled to Enjoy Certain Privileges, Exemptions, and Immunities¹

[Released to the press by the White House July 12]

By virtue of the authority vested in me by section 1 of the International Organizations Immunities Act, approved December 29, 1945 (Public Law 291, 79th Congress), and having found that the United States participates in the following-named international organizations pursuant to a treaty or under the authority of an act of Congress authorizing such participation or making an appropriation therefor, I hereby designate such organizations as public international organizations entitled to enjoy the privileges, exemptions, and immunities conferred by the said Act:

Inter-American Coffee Board

Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences

Inter-American Statistical Institute

¹ Executive Order 9751 (11 *Fed. Reg.* 7713).

International Bank for Reconstruction and Development

International Monetary Fund

Pan American Sanitary Bureau

The designation of the above-named organizations and of those named in Executive Order No. 9698 of February 19, 1946, as public international organizations within the meaning of the said International Organizations Immunities Act is not intended to abridge in any respect privileges and immunities which such organizations have acquired or may acquire by treaty or Congressional action; provided, that with respect to the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, such designation shall not be construed to affect in any way the applicability of the provisions of section 3, Article VII, of the Articles of Agreement of the Bank as adopted by the Congress of the United States in the Bretton-Woods Agreements Act of July 31, 1945 (Public Law 171, 79th Congress).

HARRY S. TRUMAN

THE WHITE HOUSE,
July 11, 1946.

The Record of the Week

Importance of British Financial Agreement to International Economic Cooperation

LETTER FROM THE PRESIDENT TO THE CHAIRMAN OF THE HOUSE COMMITTEE ON BANKING AND CURRENCY

Washington, June 29, 1946.

Honorable BRENT SPENCE, *Chairman*
Committee on Banking and Currency,
The House of Representatives

MY DEAR MR. CHAIRMAN:

I want to express my appreciation to you and to the Committee on Banking and Currency for the fine spirit in which you have considered the British Financial Agreement which is now before the House.¹

The British Financial Agreement is an integral part of the international economic policy of the United States. Without this Agreement it will be difficult, if not impossible, to proceed with the United Nations program for international eco-

nomie cooperation. This program has had the whole-hearted approval of Congress. It is the one way we can avoid the danger of a conflict in economic policy between the United States and the United Kingdom. Such a conflict would be disastrous to the economic well-being of both countries and to the peace and security of the entire world.

On such matters of international policy there must be no partisan division between Americans. Your Committee has shown the highest degree of statesmanship in its hearings and report on the British Financial Agreement. The splendid example you have set will be an inspiration to all of us.

Very sincerely yours,

HARRY S. TRUMAN

CABLEGRAM FROM THE SECRETARY OF STATE ²

The foundations of peace can never be secure if they rest exclusively on a political base.

If nations continue to wage economic warfare through discriminatory trade practices and through formation of economic blocs, international trade will languish, the standard of living will decline, irritations will develop, and there will be no peace.

Here in Paris it is more apparent to me than ever that a prompt return to normal healthy trade between nations is essential if we are to lay foundations for permanent peace and prosperity.

The British financial agreement should prove a powerful instrument to this end. It will dissolve a whole vast system of trade controls and discriminations arising out of the economic dislocations of the war.

Without the agreement, this system, so destructive of free enterprise and of friendly relations

between nations, is almost certain to continue for many years to come.

We cannot solve all our problems at once.

The British loan is the first essential economic step toward peace and security. If we permit ourselves to be sidetracked by other problems, if we attempt to hinge our assistance to Britain on other considerations, there is a good chance that our efforts to secure world trade expansion may fail.

I do hope that the Congress will recognize the stakes that are involved and that it will promptly approve the financial agreement with the United Kingdom.

BYRNES

¹ For text of British Financial Agreement, see BULLETIN of Dec. 9, 1945, p. 907. The U. S. Congress gave final approval to the \$3,750,000,000 loan to Great Britain on July 13 when the House Representatives passed the measure by a vote of 219 to 155.

² Sent by the Secretary of State to the Department of State from Paris, dated July 1, 1946.

Constitutionality of Negotiating British Financial Agreement

EXCHANGE OF LETTERS BETWEEN SENATOR FORREST C. DONNELL AND THE SECRETARY OF STATE

March 9, 1946.

DEAR MR. SECRETARY:

There is pending before the Senate of the United States S. J. R. 138, which is a Joint Resolution which by its terms is "To implement further the purposes of the Bretton Woods Agreements Act by authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to carry out an agreement with the United Kingdom, and for other purposes." Said resolution undertakes to confer on the Secretary of the Treasury authority to provide and use an amount not to exceed \$3,750,000,000 solely for the purpose of carrying out "the agreement between the United States and the United Kingdom." I understand that the agreement so in the course of said resolution mentioned is that which is dated December 6, 1945, between the United States and the United Kingdom and which is earlier mentioned in said Resolution.

Please inform me (a) whether, in your opinion, the Constitution of the United States vests in Congress any power which enables Congress to authorize the extension to the Government of the United Kingdom by the Government of the United States of that certain line of credit of \$3,750,000,000 which is specified in the above mentioned agreement between the United States and the United Kingdom and (b) if, in your opinion, the Constitution of the United States does vest in Congress that power, by what specific provision or provisions of the Constitution of the United States is that power vested in Congress.

Inasmuch as this matter is one of great urgency, I shall appreciate your sending me as soon as possible a response to this letter.

Thanking you for giving attention to this communication, I am

Yours very truly,

FORREST C. DONNELL

MY DEAR SENATOR DONNELL:

I have your letter of March 9, 1946, in which you ask me whether, in my opinion, the Constitution vests in Congress the power to authorize the extension to the Government of the United Kingdom of a line of credit of \$3,750,000,000. You also inquire what specific provisions of the Constitution can be cited as granting this authority.

So far as I am aware, the power of Congress to provide for loans or grants to foreign governments has not been challenged, and, indeed, has been exercised frequently since the adoption of the Constitution. A very good example of the exercise of this power by the Congress is the Export-Import Bank legislation, which authorizes loans by this Government to foreign governments in time of peace as well as in time of war.

One of the basic principles of constitutional construction is that the authority of Congress is not necessarily to be found in any particular phrase or word but may reside in the aggregate of the powers granted to the Congress by the Constitution.

You will recall that article I, section 8, of the Constitution provides that "the Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States." This section also confers upon the Congress the power "to borrow money on the credit of the United States, . . . to regulate Commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, . . ." and to make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution any of the powers specifically mentioned.

The authority of this Government to negotiate agreements with foreign governments is surely beyond question, and the provision of funds by the Congress to permit such agreements to be carried

out is clearly within the aggregate of the provisions of the Constitution to which I have referred.

I am glad to have had this opportunity to assure you that I am confident of the propriety of the action of the executive branch of the Government in negotiating the Anglo-American financial agreement and the authority of the Congress to consider the implementing legislation now before it.

May I also take this occasion to express to you my conviction that the benefits received by the United States from the arrangement are very substantial indeed. The Government of the United Kingdom has agreed to remove within a short period of time the financial restrictions and controls which have prevented the free exchange of British currency for the currencies of other countries, so that the trade of the world may be unshackled and

permitted to expand. The British have also agreed to support the proposals of this Government for expansion of world trade and employment and have concurred in the principles there expressed which are fundamental to the commercial policy of the United States as expressed repeatedly in the declarations and actions of this Government.

The credit which would be extended to Great Britain is to be repaid over a period of years with interest. But in addition to the return of the money lent, we have every expectation of receiving a larger portion of a larger total of world trade in the years to come.

I hope that this will satisfactorily answer the questions which you have raised.

Sincerely yours,

JAMES F. BYRNES

Functions of Committee for Financing Foreign Trade

STATEMENT BY WINTHROP W. ALDRICH, CHAIRMAN

[Released to the press by the White House July 9]

Winthrop W. Aldrich, Chairman of the Committee for Financing Foreign Trade, recently appointed by the President, made the following statement on July 9:

In his letter appointing the Committee the President said in part:

"It is of vital importance to our country and to the stabilization of the international economy, that we proceed as rapidly as possible with another of the major objectives of our reconversion program; namely to tie in our national productive capacity with the world's reconstruction requirements.

"The conduct and financing of our foreign trade should be handled by private industry with the cooperation and such assistance as is necessary from the proper Government agencies."

Government loans to other governments are necessary like many other things done in war or the aftermath of war. They cannot be the continuing basis of international trade between free countries; they should be supplemented and eventually replaced by private international financing.

The Government is doing its part. The President has appointed this Committee to encourage industry and private capital to do its part.

The Department of State explained last May to the representatives of foreign governments having purchasing missions in this country that the policy of the American Government favors the use of private commercial channels in international trade and proposed that "such trading agencies should conduct their trade in accordance with usual commercial considerations."

The Government has done and is doing, through the Export-Import Bank, its part in making the wheels of trade begin to move. The Government has further subscribed to the International Bank and the International Fund set up under the Bretton Woods Agreement. It has in the Office of International Trade in the Department of Commerce, which is primarily concerned with foreign trade promotion, a specialized staff to study the effects of loans on the expansion of foreign trade and our domestic economy. That office has already pointed out that while there are less goods of many kinds than our own population demands, there are already some fields in which surplus capacity is looming up.

Generally speaking, the function of the Committee, as I see it, will be to devise ways and means, in cooperation with the National Advisory Council, to accomplish the following purposes:

- First: to bring into orderly common effort public and private finance, through businessmen and bankers, in the foreign field;
- Second: to foster the application of the productive capacity of the United States in the most effective manner possible to the needs of domestic consumption and foreign reconstruction;
- Third: to promote relations between American and foreign business enterprise for the purpose of developing and maintaining foreign trade, both export and import, on a high and expanding level.

The accomplishment of these purposes would not only help in rebuilding the economy of the world but would increase and stabilize employment in this country.

The Committee will also work with the Departments of State and Commerce in connection with the trade promotion aspects of its work. The

National Advisory Council, to which the Committee will make its report and recommendations and with which it will work on the lending aspects of its assignment, includes the heads of the Treasury Department, the Department of State, the Department of Commerce, the Export-Import Bank, and the Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System.

I have just come back from attending the meetings of the Council of the International Chamber of Commerce in Paris and have set to work immediately to get the data together to provide a basis for discussions by the Committee. We shall move forward under the President's instructions just as rapidly as the magnitude of the task permits.

I had a short letter from the President last Wednesday in which he said:

"I shall look to you as Chairman of the Committee to call the members together and organize the work of the Committee."

I shall lose no time in doing just that.

The Proclaimed List of Certain Blocked Nationals

ANNOUNCEMENT OF WITHDRAWAL OF LIST

[Released to the press July 9]

The Department of State with the concurrence of the Departments of Treasury, Justice, and Commerce, announced on July 9 the withdrawal of the Proclaimed List of Certain Blocked Nationals, generally known as the "American Black List". The withdrawal is to be effective immediately. This measure was decided upon after extensive consultation with the British and Canadian Governments, which are taking similar action with respect to the British Statutory List and the Canadian List of Specified Persons. The three lists have been virtually identical since shortly after the Proclaimed List came into existence on July 17, 1941. Other governments, including those recognizing the list or maintaining lists of their own, were informed in advance of the intended measure.

The Proclaimed List named persons and companies, resident in areas outside of enemy control, who directly or indirectly rendered substantial aid to the enemy war machine. Those listed were de-

nied the privilege of trading with the United States.

Before V-E Day the British, Canadian, and U.S. Governments were in consultation with respect to the continuation of the list after the conclusion of active hostilities. The Governments were in agreement that it would be essential to continue the lists but that they should be reduced to a "hard core". Thus the Proclaimed List, when withdrawn, consisted of 5,887 names, representing a substantial reduction from 15,446 at its peak on July 28, 1944. These reductions resulted from both the elimination of undesirable influences or interests in various listed firms and the deletion of the less serious offenders.

The withdrawal of the Proclaimed List does not in any way constitute a termination of or slacking in the program for the permanent elimination of Axis external influences either in this Hemisphere or in the Eastern Hemisphere. With respect to the other American republics, the program for the marshaling, liquidation, vesting, and expropriation or forced sale of Axis spearhead business enterprises is based on various inter-American reso-

lutions, beginning with those adopted at the Rio de Janeiro Conference of January 1942, and the last of which was at the Mexico City Conference (Chapultepec) of February-March 1945. These resolutions and the programs to be executed pursuant to them are based on a recognition of the importance and urgency of eliminating Axis influences in this Hemisphere as essential to inter-American security. The Government of the United States is prepared to cooperate fully with the governments of the other American republics in carrying out the letter and spirit of these inter-American agreements.

With respect to the Eastern Hemisphere, arrangements have already been instituted with the Governments of Switzerland and Sweden. Pursuant to these arrangements German-owned or -controlled interests in these countries are being marshaled and liquidated and looted property will be restored to the rightful owners. The withdrawal of the Proclaimed List for these countries was facilitated by the conclusion of these arrangements.

Similar discussions are currently in progress with respect to other areas in the world, and it is expected that they will lead to comparable over-all arrangements for the elimination of German external influences, the transfer to the Allies of the proceeds realized from the liquidation or sale of German holdings to desirable persons, and the restitution of looted property. In accordance with the Paris Reparation Agreement, the United States, together with other United Nations, will continue to lend every effort to the achievement of satisfactory programs in these areas.

The withdrawal of the Proclaimed List does not necessarily affect other existing controls. For example, the withdrawal of the Proclaimed List does not mean that accounts, where such exist, of all persons formerly included in the list are now unfrozen in the United States. In certain cases, accounts will continue to be blocked by reason of nationality. Similarly, the withdrawal of the Proclaimed List does not imply that all former Proclaimed List nationals are regarded as satisfactory agents for American business. In this connection, reference is made to the Department's press release No. 202 of March 29, 1946 in which it is stated that information concerning former Proclaimed List persons and firms is available in the Commercial Intelligence Division of the Department of Commerce. However, the withdrawal

of the Proclaimed List does represent an important step in the United States policy of freeing trade from wartime controls as soon as such action becomes possible.

A memorandum describing the history and scope of the Proclaimed List is attached to this statement.

HISTORY AND SCOPE OF THE PROCLAIMED LIST¹

The British Government on September 3, 1939 first issued the British Statutory List and on February 7, 1940 the Canadian Government issued its original List of Specified Persons. During 1940 and 1941 this Government found it necessary to establish certain controls in the interest of the defense of the country. Some of these controls were of an economic nature and the agencies administering the controls naturally took into account the persons involved in the transactions subject to control. For example, the prospective consignee of a proposed shipment was a factor to be considered when deciding whether or not an export license could be granted. Similarly, the persons participating in a financial transaction were factors to be considered when considering license applications under foreign-funds controls. Various sources of information were available to the agencies administering the controls, but there was no machinery for coordinating the views of the various agencies concerning persons abroad nor was there a list which would guide American businessmen in their trading with persons abroad. Thus it became necessary to issue a published list of undesirable persons with respect to whom all transactions with the United States would be subject to control. Such a list was established July 17, 1941 pursuant to the President's proclamation of that date. The proclamation was issued under authority granted to the President by the act of October 6, 1917, by the act of July 2, 1940 and by virtue of all other authority vested in the President. The proclamation instructed the Secretary of State, acting in conjunction with the Secretary of the Treasury, the Attorney General, the Secretary of Commerce, the Administrator of Export Control, and the Coordinator of Commercial and Cultural Relations between the American republics, to prepare an appropriate list of persons working with or for the Axis and persons to whom

¹ For an article on the Proclaimed List see BULLETIN of May 26, 1946, p. 875.

exports from the United States were deemed to be detrimental to the interests of national defense. The Office of the Administrator of Export Control no longer exists and the Secretary of Commerce now has the responsibility for the administration of export control. The Office of Inter-American Affairs, successor to the Coordinator of Commercial and Cultural Relations between the American republics, was recently terminated.

The original Proclaimed List issued on July 17, 1941 consisted of 1,834 names, all of which were Western Hemisphere names. On December 9, 1941, just two days after Pearl Harbor, the Proclaimed List authorities issued a supplement adding 505 Japanese names to the Proclaimed List. On January 14, 1942 the names of 1,824 persons and concerns in the Eastern Hemisphere were added to the list. From this time on, the British, Canadian, and American authorities cooperated very closely in the issuance of their respective lists so that the lists have been virtually identical since that time.

It was well known that the Nazi Government of Germany used German commercial and financial concerns abroad as tools to further the Nazi cause. German concerns abroad were used as propaganda outlets, financial agents, espionage centers, suppliers of critically needed foreign exchange, sources for smuggling of urgently needed war materials to Germany, et cetera. Some of these concerns were affiliates of firms in Germany; others were concerns owned by locally resident Germans. These companies also exerted influence over many other enterprises which supported the German concerns, thus increasing the Nazi economic penetration to a considerable extent. The issuance of the Proclaimed List was a severe blow to this Nazi economic network.

Attempts to avoid the Proclaimed List controls were however made. Numerous expedients were devised, such as obtaining material through cloaks—Persons or firms who were willing to carry on transactions ostensibly for themselves but actually for Proclaimed List nationals. In order to enforce the list it was therefore necessary to list additional persons and firms. Moreover, additional evidence was being found from time to time indicating other persons whose activities merited inclusion in the Proclaimed List. Thus the list increased in size until it reached its peak on July 28, 1944 when it consisted of 15,446 names.

It should not be assumed that while names were

being added no names were deleted. Proclaimed List cases were constantly open for review. Mistakes, always possible, were rectified. Furthermore, change in the facts of a case might make deletion possible. If a person could, for example, show that he had discontinued a partnership with a politically undesirable partner and was now on his own or in partnership with an unobjectionable person, his name was deleted from the list. Similarly, any concern which reorganized itself, ousting the undesirable interests, was eligible for deletion from the Proclaimed List. Some of these reorganizations were worked out voluntarily by unobjectionable partners and in a good many instances they were worked out through the cooperation of the local government, particularly in the other American republics.

The American republics early recognized the danger of Axis penetration and as early as the Rio de Janeiro Conference in 1942 took measures contemplating the elimination of Axis economic penetration in this Hemisphere. The programs inaugurated by the various American republics accomplished the liquidation, forced sale, reorganization, or vesting of many Axis enterprises. When this occurred, deletion was possible not only of the firm which had been eliminated or cleaned up but also of the names of any persons or firms which had been included in the list primarily because of association with, or activities on behalf of, the eliminated or reorganized Proclaimed List entity. Moreover, as the programs of the various American republics progressed, it was possible in some cases to remove certain of the lesser offenders even though not primarily listed for connection with one of the eliminated or cleaned-up Proclaimed List entities. Such deletions were possible because the security reasons for listing changed as the local-controls program in many countries became more effective. Thus the list had been reduced to 13,784 names on V-E Day.

In the summer of 1944 the authorities charged with the maintenance of the Proclaimed List gave extensive consideration to the policy which should be followed upon the cessation of active hostilities in the European theater. It was decided at that time that the list should be continued after the cessation of active hostilities in Europe but that it would be possible to make a downward adjustment in the size of the list on the basis of the

(Continued on page 118)

Preliminary Reports on the First Bikini Atom-Bomb Test

REPORT OF THE JOINT CHIEFS OF STAFF'S EVALUATION BOARD

[Released to the press by the White House July 11]

The President has received the following preliminary report on the First Bikini Atom-Bomb Test from the President's Evaluation Commission, which witnessed the test on July 1st.

The report, signed in behalf of the commission by the chairman, Senator Carl A. Hatch, New Mexico, was transmitted by radio from the U.S.S. *Mount McKinley*, flagship of Admiral Blandy, off Bikini.

The other members of the President's Commission are: Senator Leverett Saltonstall, Massachusetts; Representative Chet Holifield, California; Representative Walter G. Andrews, New York; Edward U. Condon, director, U.S. Bureau of Standards, Washington, D.C.; Karl T. Compton, president, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, Mass.; Bradley Dewey, Cambridge, Mass.; William S. Newell, Bath, Me.; Fred Searls, New York, N. Y.

Text of the report:

DEAR MR. PRESIDENT:

Your Evaluation Commission, divided between positions at sea and in the air, witnessed the First Bikini Test, at 33 seconds after 9:00 A.M. local time on July 1st, and has since completed a survey of the damage. The Second Test, wherein the bomb will be exploded under water, will in some respects be of even greater interest, for it will have no precedent.

The report of your Commission required by its directive of May 18th must await the assembling of considerable data deriving from instrumental and photographic measurements and analysis of fission product samples. However, we believe that it lies within the scope of your directive and may be of possible assistance to you, to submit, now, the following brief observations made from the layman's point of view, but with such accuracy as is presently available:

1. The organization and execution of the operation was magnificently handled and has commanded our continuous admiration. The bomb was dropped under favorable weather conditions about 30 seconds after the time set. The greatest credit is due Admiral Blandy and the officers and enlisted personnel of both services who, with scien-

tists and other civilians, have served and are serving under him with a display of team work that must be seen to be fully appreciated.

2. Their conservatively safe distance from the burst led many observers to entertain an initial opinion that the bomb employed was somewhat under par. It is now, however, safe to state that the energy was of the same order of magnitude as in the case of previous atomic detonations, between the highest and lowest of this bomb's three predecessors.

3. The accuracy of the drop was such that the explosion occurred within the area included within the allowance for the probable error of the elevation of drop, and detonation was probably within 100 feet of the chosen altitude. Nevertheless, the explosion actually occurred several hundred yards west of a point directly above the target ship *Nevada* and therefore entirely west of the closely spaced array of capital ships.

4. There were 90 targets anchored in the lagoon when the bomb exploded. These were not in battle formation but were placed in positions to give the largest amount of desired technical information with especially close concentration around the center target point. Those ships anchored a mile or more from the point of drop largely escaped injury. Those within a mile were sunk or suffered damage varying with the distance from the point of detonation and with the type of ship construction. On explosion, a destroyer and two transports sank promptly. A second destroyer and the Japanese cruiser *Sakawa* sank within twenty-seven hours. The light carrier *Independence* was gutted with fire and resultant explosions. The submarine *Skate* was heavily damaged and later towed away. All of these were near the point of explosion. The other ships, including the only two capital ships which were within one-half mile of the detonation, received damage that would require more or less complete overhaul and in most cases repair at major bases before they could again be used for combat. A study of this damage will point the way to changes in design which should minimize damage from blast and heat. Beyond these ships there was extensive damage to superstructure, radar, and fire control. Had the ships

within the damage area been manned, casualties and psychological injuries would have required a large percentage of replacements. Until the readings of complex instruments and the future life history of animals within the ships have been determined no accurate appraisal of potential damage to humans within the ships can be made.

5. No wave or blast damage could be noticed on Bikini Island, which is approximately three miles from the point of detonation.

6. We are of the unanimous opinion that the

first test amply justified the expenditure required to conduct it and that the second test is equally desirable and necessary. You made a wise decision when you approved the plans for these tests and they have been carried out with extraordinary skill, diligence and ingenuity. The test just completed has again proven that the atomic bomb is a weapon of terrific power when used on land or sea.

Most respectfully yours,

CARL A. HATCH

REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT'S EVALUATION COMMISSION

[Released to the press by the White House July 11]

In compliance with its directive from the Joint Chiefs of Staff, the Evaluation Board for the Atomic Bomb Tests has submitted a preliminary report of the test held at Bikini Atoll on July 1, 1946. The members of this Board were:

Dr. Karl T. Compton, *Chairman*
Mr. Bradley Dewey, *Deputy Chairman*
Mr. Thomas F. Farrell
Gen. Joseph W. Stilwell, U.S.A.
Lt. Gen. Lewis H. Brereton, U.S.A.
Rear Admiral W. R. Purnell, U.S.N.
Rear Admiral R. A. Ofstie, U.S.N.

The report which follows covers the general observations of this Board.

Text of report:

The members of the Board inspected target ships the day before the test, witnessed the explosion from an airplane twenty miles distant, and then approached to within nine miles of the atoll for a brief view. On the following day, as soon as safety clearance had been received, the members flew to Bikini and began their examination of ship damage. Many photographs have been studied, and military and scientific specialists interviewed in an attempt to obtain an over-all understanding of test results prior to the compilation of all the data.

From its previous study of the plans for the test, and from its observations in the Bikini area, the Board considers that the test was well conceived and executed by the services in close cooperation with a large civilian staff. It is satisfied that the conditions of the test were well-chosen and that the highest skill and ingenuity have been used to obtain a maximum amount of data in an

unbiased, scientific manner. It believes that the commander, staff, and personnel of Task Force One deserve high commendation for their excellent performance and their notable cooperative spirit.

Effective precautions appear to have been taken to safeguard personnel against radioactivity and associated dangers.

The Board's present information is that the bomb exploded, with an intensity which approached the best of the three previous atomic bombs, over a point 1500 to 2000 feet westerly of the assigned target, and at approximately the planned altitude.

The target array in no sense represented an actual naval disposition but was designed to obtain the maximum data from a single explosion. The most important effects produced by the bomb are the following:

a. A destroyer and two transports sank promptly and another destroyer capsized. It later sank, and the Japanese cruiser *Sakawa* sank the following day. The superstructure of the submarine *Skate* was so badly damaged as to make it unsafe to submerge the vessel. The light carrier *Independence* was badly wrecked by the explosion, gutted by fire, and further damaged by internal explosions of low order, including those of torpedoes. All the above vessels were within one-half mile of the explosion point.

b. Numerous fires were started on other ships, including one on a ship two miles distant, which was apparently due to some unusual circumstance since the other fires were much closer. Here it should be remembered that the target ship decks carried a great variety of test material not ordinarily exposed on the decks of naval vessels.

c. The only major combatant ships within one-half mile of the explosion point were the battleships *Nevada* and *Arkansas* and the heavy cruiser *Pensacola*. The blast struck these from the after quarter. Apparently little damage was done to their hulls or their main turrets but their superstructures were badly wrecked. These ships were unquestionably put out of action and would, along with many others within three-fourths of a mile, have required extensive repairs at a principal naval base.

d. Other ships in the target array suffered damage in varying degree, depending on position and type of ship, but there was relatively little damage at distances greater than three-fourths of a mile.

e. The primary material effects noted were due to blast, buckling of decks and bulkheads, and destruction or deformation of lightly constructed exposed objects, including stacks, masts, and antennae. Secondary effects were due to fire, and it is noteworthy that Army Quartermaster stores and miscellaneous equipment placed on the decks for the test proved more vulnerable than normal naval deck gear. It should be pointed out that since the targets carried no personnel the fires were uncontrolled and undoubtedly there was more damage than there would have been under battle conditions. Singularly, although considerable amounts of explosive ordnance were exposed on decks and in gun turrets, there is no indication on ships which remained afloat that any of this material was exploded by direct action of the atomic bomb. Fire-fighting ships entered the target area as soon as they could obtain radiological security permission and subdued a number of fires. The speed and efficiency with which these ships acted preserved for later examination a great deal of evidence of bomb action which might otherwise have been lost.

f. Examination of the flashburn effects produced by the initial radiation from the explosion indicates that casualties would have been high among exposed personnel. However, it is the opinion of the Board that persons sheltered within the hull of a ship or even on deck in the shadow of radiation from the bomb would not have been immediately incapacitated by burns alone, whatever might have been the subsequent radiological effects.

g. Within the area of extensive blast damage to ship superstructures there is evidence that person-

nel within the ships would have been exposed to a lethal dosage of radiological effects.

Personnel casualties due to blast would no doubt have been high for those in exposed positions on vessels within one-half mile of the target center. Beyond this, any discussion of the blast effect upon personnel will have to await the detailed reports of the medical specialists.

In general no significant unexpected phenomena occurred, although the test was designed to cope with considerable variation from predictions. There was no large water wave formed. The radioactive residue dissipated in the manner expected. No damage occurred on Bikini Island, about three miles from the explosion center.

From what it has seen and from what it has ascertained from data now available, the Board is able to make certain general observations:

a. The atomic bomb dropped at Bikini damaged more ships than have ever before been damaged by a single explosion.

b. The test has provided adequate data of a sort necessary for the redesign of naval vessels to minimize damage to superstructures and deck personnel from this type of bomb. Because of the nature of the first test (air burst) little information has been obtained on hull effects. Damage to ships' hulls will be studied specifically in the second test when a bomb will be exploded under water.

c. A vast amount of data which will prove invaluable throughout scientific and engineering fields has been made available by this test. Once more the importance of large-scale research has been dramatically demonstrated. There can be no question that the effort and expense involved in this test has been amply justified both by the information secured and by greatly narrowing the range of speculation and argument. Moreover, it is clear to the Board that only by further large-scale research and development can the United States retain its present position of scientific leadership. This must be done in the interests of national safety.

The Board desires to say that it has had the fullest cooperation of the task force commander, and that every opportunity has been afforded it in carrying out its mission. The members of the Board have had access to all data thus far accumulated and have had every facility for personally inspecting the results of the test.

Duty of Higher Education in Creating International Understanding

REMARKS BY THE PRESIDENT ¹

It's a pleasure to me to be able to welcome you to Washington this morning. I understand that one of your tremendous problems is a result of the war. So many people now want education who didn't want it before, that you are having a difficult time taking care of all of them. Of course, I was led to believe that the war would ruin all education, but it seems to have stimulated it.

We don't believe in wars any more, of course, but I do believe that if we can implement the United Nations Organization with a police force behind it sufficient to make its mandates stand up, we can have world peace, just as we finally after 80 years—at the end of the Civil War—obtained peace in the United States. We had to take time out to fight among ourselves, before we could make up our minds that the States ought to live together peaceably.

International dealings are no different from those carried on among individuals. Nations represent a community of individuals, and there isn't any more reason why we can't understand each other as nations than why we can't understand each other as individuals.

Now it is your duty, as the educators of the country, to get the rising generation to believe that; and if you can overcome those prejudices which cause wars—religious prejudices, economic prejudices, misunderstandings between races and people of different languages—we can accomplish this.

You know, it would be as easy as could be to create a world peace if everybody in the world spoke the same language and read the same newspapers, and had a code of morals based on the necessity for people to live together. Unless we have a code of morals which respects the other fellow's interests and in which we believe that we should act as we would be acted by, you never can maintain peace.

The happiest thing to me is the fact that these

¹ Made in Washington on July 11 to the educators attending the Conference on Emergency Problems in Higher Education, under the auspices of the American Council on Education, and released to the press by the White House on the same date.

returned soldiers and sailors, marines, Wacs and Waves, and so forth, are giving you such a headache on education. I hope they will continue to do that. And if they do, I think the country is perfectly safe.

It is a pleasure for me to have you here this morning, and to be able to make a few off-the-cuff remarks on a subject that is very close to my heart. When a man wants an education badly enough, he usually manages to get it; but it has been our system to make it easy for him to get that education, and we want that to continue—although sometimes the struggle for something that is worthwhile makes it all the better, after you get it.

Thank you very much.

I hope you will have a successful meeting.

PROCLAIMED LIST—Continued from page 114

changed security situation following V-E Day. This revision actually took place in two stages.

The names of minor offenders were culled from the list and deleted in June 1945. In this supplement 1,980 names were deleted, most of which were minor offenders deleted in view of the changed security situation rather than on the merits of the individual case. These deletions, together with certain group deletions, based upon the effectiveness of local controls in the Western Hemisphere, and taking into account certain additions, reduced the list to 11,443 names on V-J Day.

After the minor offenders had been deleted and certain group deletions had been accomplished for the Western Hemisphere, the remaining names were reviewed case by case in order to select the worse offenders. After this selection had been made all other names were deleted from the list in November 1945. The November supplement contained 5,081 deletions, leaving a "hard core" of 6,053 names. Since the deletion to the "hard core" there have been relatively few deletions from the list, which is quite understandable in view of the fact that the whole list was reviewed case by case before the issuance of the November supplement. There were, however, some deletions from the list and also some additions, so that the list when withdrawn consisted of 5,887 names.

Report to the President on 1945-46 Famine-Relief Food Shipments¹

STATEMENT BY THE PRESIDENT

[Released to the press by the White House July 12]

Every American can take pride in the record of accomplishment in shipping food for relief as shown in the attached report which I have received from Secretary of Agriculture Clinton P. Anderson.

Only by cooperation and determined effort on the part of everyone has it been possible to make good on our promises—and, in the case of food grains, to exceed our commitments. The public generally, food producers and handlers, transportation companies, organizations, and government agencies—all have helped to make this impressive record possible.

Only by continued cooperation among all of us can we as a nation do our full share in the months to come to relieve the hunger that still exists in the world.

The importance of this effort in relieving human suffering and establishing world peace cannot be overestimated.

TEXT OF REPORT

The United States exported more than 16½ million long tons of foodstuffs during the year which ended June 30. The great bulk of these shipments went to war-devastated countries where starvation threatened. These exports from the United States were by far the greatest contribution made to the world's hungry during this first year of reconstruction.

The 400 million bushel "bread" grain export commitment for the year was met by June 30. Wheat and flour exports (10,336,000 tons), plus the corn and corn products shipped after May 1 from stocks acquired under the corn "bonus" plan, reached a total of 401 million bushels.

Of the total bread grain exports, 5,556,000 tons were shipped from January 1 through June 30. In addition, enough wheat, flour, corn and corn products was at ports on July 1, ready for ship loading, to bring the total above the six million ton (225 million bushel) "goal" for the half-year

period. This means that the full goal totals will have left our shores and be on the way to hunger areas as soon as ships can be loaded and cleared—probably by the middle of the month. During June alone, our bread grain exports totaled about one and one-half million tons—a record for a similar period.

Meeting this full goal means actual shipment of 417 million bushels for the year. The excess of 17 million bushels above our commitments will not be deducted from the planned export of up to 250 million bushels of wheat during the 1946-47 year.

The real extent of this accomplishment in grain export is brought out by the fact that the amount shipped is nearly double the original requirement for the year which was presented to the Combined Food Board a year ago. At that time, it was thought that we would be called upon to export only about six million tons (225 million bushels) for the entire year.

Adding rice, oats, rye and barley to the "bread" grains of the specific commitments, brings the total of all grains exported during the year to 11,747,000 long tons—by far the largest volume in the total food shipments. Grains, high in calories per unit and easily handled, were the greatest need of the hungry nations.

Second in importance for relief and in the amounts shipped were fats and oils, dairy products, and meats. The totals for the year were: dairy products, 764,000 tons; meats, 614,000 tons; and fats and oils, 356,000 tons.

In addition to these major commodities, a total of more than 3,200,000 tons of other foodstuffs were exported during the year. These exports included dry beans and peas, potatoes and sweet potatoes, fruits and vegetables, sugar, eggs, and canned fish.

Our great contribution in meeting world food shortages may be measured by the fact that of all food distributed from United States supplies in 1945-46, one out of every six pounds went over-

¹ Submitted by Clinton P. Anderson, Secretary of Agriculture, on July 8.

seas. By major commodity groups, we sent foreign countries more than 40 percent of the wheat that was distributed from our supplies during the year, more than 35 percent of the rice, more than 20 percent of the cheese, more than 10 percent of the fats and oils, and about 6 percent of the meat.

The Need

It is not necessary to review in detail the needs that prompted us as a country to carry through this tremendous world feeding program. In your call for emergency action last February 6, and in many other messages, you as President outlined these needs clearly. We have all understood that the ravages of war left literally hundreds of millions of our fellow men in very real danger of starvation. We have known that droughts cut down production in many parts of the world, increasing the demands upon those countries fortunate enough to have continued large crop production. And we have also known that hunger is a fertile ground for anarchy, and not for the building of a stable world and a durable peace.

Cooperative Effort

It has been against this background of urgent need that this Government has driven through to reach export quotas. That they have been reached in practically all cases is a tribute to the teamwork of all groups involved. Our farmers not only produced record or near record crops for one more year, but they also cooperated in getting wheat and other commodities to market when the emergency became acute. The processing, distribution, and transportation industries have all made magnificent records in handling the foodstuffs which were being shipped to foreign countries. Our consumers, seriously inconvenienced at times when their favorite foods disappeared from grocers' shelves, have in general accepted the situation with a minimum of complaint. They have known that the food they could not buy today was on its way to maintain life and health in some war-torn country.

While the Department of Agriculture has had the major responsibility for procuring the food, and for instituting many of the emergency measures which were necessary to make it available, the job could not have been done without the efficient cooperation of many other government agencies. The Inter-Departmental Transportation Committee directed a coordinated effort which broke grain shipping records during recent weeks. Great

credit is due the War Shipping Administration, the Interstate Commerce Commission, and the Office of Defense Transportation for the work they did in making transportation available. Your Famine Emergency Committee has suggested constructive over-all steps needed in the campaign effort, and has helped materially in informing the nation of the urgent need for food from the United States.

Emergency Measures

Many emergency measures and special regulations were necessary in order to meet our export commitments and complete the programs. The Department of Agriculture ordered set-asides for Government purchase of a number of commodities. It was necessary to limit the use of wheat and other grains in livestock feeding, and to limit the amount of flour available for human consumption. The special "bonus" programs for wheat and corn were necessary in order to get grain to market in time to meet shipping schedules.

Continuing Needs

While it can be reported that we are nearing the end of the most urgent crisis for this year, and that the worst of the immediate dangers of famine have been forestalled, serious food needs abroad will continue for some time. Devastated countries cannot return to normal in a single year. When this year's harvests are completed for the northern hemisphere, we shall know a good deal more about the situation. In the meantime, we must continue relief shipments and be ready to meet at least the minimum future needs.

The Department of Agriculture has already announced that by continuing conservation and wise use of supplies at home up to 250 million bushels of wheat can be made available for export during the 1946-47 year. Tentative plans are also being made for our shipments of other major commodities.

Commodity Shipments in 1945-46

Grains—A year ago it was indicated that the United States would be called on to export about 225 million bushels of wheat during 1945-46. Later, in the fall, the total was raised to 325 million. By December, UNRRA, France, and other claimants had been forced to raise their estimates of minimum requirements several times, and the United States agreed to undertake the export of a record total of 400 million bushels during the

year. At that time advance estimates placed wheat and flour exports at 175 million bushels for the last six months of 1945. We therefore set a goal of 225 million for the January-June 1946 period, to bring the total for the year to the 400 million bushel commitment.

Later reports show that 192 million bushels of wheat and flour were actually shipped before January 1, leaving only 208 million to reach the 400 total. We chose, however, to stick to the 225 million bushel (six million ton) "goal" figure which had already been announced. In effect, therefore, we have been working against a 400 million bushel commitment for the year, and a 417 million bushel goal. We knew from the first that all we could ship would not be enough to meet all needs, and we therefore have made every effort to exceed the commitment.

We have now passed the 400 million commitment, and will very soon reach the 417 million bushel goal.

Meats—It is estimated that approximately 614,000 long tons of meat and meat products were actually shipped to foreign claimants during the 12 months, not including shipments to U.S. territories. This compares with the stated 1946 calendar year goal of 714,000 long tons. During the past 12 months, procurement activities were complicated by such factors as work stoppages in production, and shortages in supply during at least part of the year. The 1945-46 shipments represented 5.9 percent of total U.S. meat output during the year.

Of the 614,000 total which went for export, approximately 379,000 tons were procured by the Department of Agriculture, while 215,000 tons came from military stocks for such outlets as UNRRA and U.S. military civilian feeding. In addition, about 20,000 tons were exported commercially.

UNRRA received nearly half the total 614,000 tons shipped to foreign claimants, exports to this outlet accounting for 288,000 tons. Virtually all of the meat which went to UNRRA was for European destinations. Of the total 614,000 tons of meat exported, 588,000 tons went to Europe, including the countries served by UNRRA. The remainder was exported to outlets in the Far East, Latin American republics, and others.

Fats and Oils—High on the list of food products needed for foreign relief feeding and for other essential exports were fats and oils. It was recog-

nized at the beginning of the 1945-46 year that we would be faced with a continuing world shortage of these commodities. Appraisal of the situation after the end of the war in the Pacific indicated little alleviation of the tight supply for some months to come. Sources in that area had been devastated by the war, and re-establishment of supplies has taken more time than had been anticipated. The situation called for the most efficient management of available world supplies, including those from U.S. sources.

According to our estimates, it is indicated that actual shipments to the outlets for which allocations were established reached slightly more than 356,000 long tons of edible fats and oils. The goal for the 1946 calendar year was set at 347,000 tons, or 375,000 tons including both edible and inedible products.

Of the 356,000 long tons exported, 268,000 went to Europe, with the remainder going to countries in the Far East, to Latin American republics, and others. Approximately 73,000 tons, or 27 percent of the total which went to Europe, was for UNRRA. Other large recipients included: the United Kingdom and British Services Overseas, France and French North Africa.

Dairy products—Measured against a tight supply situation in the U.S. was the pressure of record demand—both from the need for these products in foreign relief programs, and from U.S. civilians. Tentative plans for exports, implemented by allocations, were drawn up for the 1945-46 year. The products most in demand for foreign use are cheese, and condensed, evaporated, and dried milk.

The estimated export shipments are indicated to be 764,000 long tons. The shipments represent 28 percent of total distribution of these products in the fiscal year.

Of the approximately 764,000 long tons exported during the 12-month period, about 88 percent, or 669,000 tons, went to European countries. Shipments to UNRRA—in the amount of 316,000 tons—made up 44 percent of all shipments to Europe. The United Kingdom and British Services Overseas were the next largest recipients, followed by such countries as France and French North Africa, and Belgium. Relatively small shipments went to the Far East, and other outlets.

The following table gives the preliminary report on exports during the year, by major food groups and by destination:

TABLE 1: FOOD EXPORTS^a FROM THE UNITED STATES BY DESTINATION, FISCAL YEAR 1945-46
(PRELIMINARY)

[In thousands of long tons]

Destination	Total	Wheat and flour (grain equiv.) ^b	Other grains (grain equiv.) ^c	Fats and oils (product weight) ^d	Meat (carcass weight equiv.)	Dairy products ^e	Other foods ^f
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Total food exports	16, 700	10, 336	1, 411	356	614	764	3, 219
Europe—Total	11, 647	7, 454	655	268	588	669	2, 013
UNRRA ^h	3, 951	2, 624	227	73	288	311	428
U. S. Military civilian feeding	2, 351	1, 535	64	13	16	43	680
France and French North Africa	1, 959	1, 408	80	61	60	47	303
Belgium	779	541	74	19	48	33	64
Netherlands	394	304	17	11	27	21	14
Norway	68	12	30	4	1	0	21
U.K. and B. S. O	1, 086	306	26	69	99	196	390
U. S. S. R	123	36	11	8	46	5	17
Other Europe	936	688	126	10	3	13	96
Far East—Total	1, 400	879	346	4	5	29	137
UNRRA	164	127	ⁱ 37	0	0	(*)	0
U. S. Military civilian feeding	573	427	120	0	0	0	26
Philippines	315	160	78	1	1	23	52
India	300	164	84	0	0	6	46
Netherlands East Indies	48	1	27	3	4	(*)	13
Latin American Republics	1, 384	936	243	52	10	14	129
Other exports	2, 269	1, 067	167	32	11	52	940

^a Excludes shipments to U. S. Territories except for wheat and flour, amounting to approximately 4 million bushels wheat equivalent.

^b Excludes other wheat products which are less than one half of one percent of total exports.

^c Includes corn and corn products, rice, oats, rye, and barley, including malt.

^d Total edible use including a very small quantity of butter. Includes oil equivalent of soybeans shipped as beans and of peanuts shipped to UNRRA.

^e Includes cheese, condensed, evaporated, and dried milk.

^f Includes sugar, beans and peas, fish, eggs, poultry, vegetables, fruits, sirups, soups, tea, coffee, cocoa, etc.

^g Less than 500 tons.

^h May include some food for UNRRA in the Far East.

ⁱ May include a small quantity of rice for UNRRA in Europe.

Corrigendum

TREATY OBLIGATIONS AND PHILIPPINE INDEPENDENCE

Reply of Belgian Government to U.S. Note

In BULLETIN of July 14, 1946, p. 79, second column, line 6, change "the most-favoured-national provisions" to read "the most-favoured-nation provisions".

U.S. Prepared to Renounce Its Share in German Assets in Austria

[Released to the press July 10]

The following is the text of a note delivered by General Mark W. Clark to the Austrian Government:

The President of the United States as one of the signers of the Potsdam Agreement has directed me to inform the Austrian Government that the United States Government is now prepared to

enter into negotiations with other Allied Governments and with the Austrian Government looking towards the renunciation of the United States share in German assets in Austria as part of a general settlement of German assets in Austria.¹

While these negotiations are underway the United States Government now agrees to turn over to the Austrian Government as trustee all German assets physically located in the United

¹ Following is the text of the order of the Soviet Commander in Chief in Austria as quoted by a TASS dispatch published July 6, 1946 in the Red Army newspaper *Oesterreichische Zeitung* under the headline, "German Assets in Austria Have Become Property of Soviet Union":

ORDER OF THE SUPREME COMMANDER OF SOVIET OCCUPATION TROOPS IN AUSTRIA

Subject: Transfer of German property in eastern Austria to the ownership of the U. S. S. R.

In accordance with the decisions of the Berlin Conference of the three powers concerning the transfer of German property in eastern Austria to the Soviet Union as partial reparation for the damage inflicted by Germany upon the U. S. S. R., I command:

1. All Austrian authorities and the entire population of the Soviet zone of occupation are to be informed that German property located in eastern Austria which belonged to the German Reich, to German firms, societies, organizations, and any other physical or juridic persons have passed into the possession of the Union of the Socialist Soviet Republics as German reparations.

2. The conduct of the above-mentioned property will be handed over to the Administration for Soviet Property in eastern Austria.

3. All authorities, bureaus, organizations, and private persons, as well as anyone who has in custody or is administering the property and possessions, which according to paragraph 1 of this order have passed into the possession of the Soviet Union, have to transfer these to the Administration for Soviet Property in eastern Austria in the manner and within the period prescribed by said Administration. In the course of the transfer and taking over of this property the Administration for Soviet Property in eastern Austria, together with the above-mentioned organizations and persons must:

(a) Formulate the transfer of the former German properties into the possession of the Soviet Union in a legal manner and register the transfer of this property;

(b) Prepare documents concerning the transfer and the taking over in 4 copies.

4. The stocks, shares, and mine shares of any value whatsoever which belonged to the German owners and

are not delivered in accordance with this order, are to be considered null and void.

The Administration of Soviet Property in eastern Austria is authorized:

(a) To issue new shares and certificates in place of the annulled shares, stocks, and mine shares.

(b) To prepare legal forms concerning the completed transfer, as well as to determine the nature, the extent, and the legal form in which these properties are in future to be administered.

5. All contracts, business transactions, and other legal negotiations which are injurious to the property rights of the Soviet Union concerning these German properties are declared null and void.

6. The mayors of all cities, the officials of all state organs, of all bezirks and communities in eastern Austria, in whose territory former German property is located which has not yet been taken over by the Administration of Soviet Property in eastern Austria, are to take the necessary steps to safeguard such property and to report it to the Soviet local commanders within 10 days from the day of proclamation of this order.

7. All officials of bureaus, organizations, firms, factories, and all other private individuals who have knowledge of former German property which has not yet been taken over by the Administration for Soviet Property are obligated to make a report within 10 days to the Soviet Local Command or directly to the Administration for Soviet Property in eastern Austria of such property.

8. In all factories which have passed into the possession of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics the existing regulations are to be maintained, and the conditions to be safeguarded which guarantee the rights and interests of workers and employees according to the laws of the Austrian Republic.

9. All persons who under any pretext whatsoever withhold notification of where the above-named property is found, who attempt to conceal such fact or give misleading information, as well as all persons who through their acts in any way hinder the application of this order or damage the above-named property, are subject to punitive action.

*The Supreme Commander of the
Soviet Occupation Troops in Austria*
Colonel General KURASOV.

States zone. It assures the Austrian Government that such assets may immediately be used for purposes of reconstruction in Austria without fear of removal of the plant and equipment from the United States zone in Austria but with the question of ownership to be resolved later.

The United States Government also wishes to make clear that it will recognize no physical trans-

fer of property as conforming to the terms of the Potsdam Agreement which does not also conform to the terms of the United Nations Declaration on forced transfer for January 1943 and which does not leave to Austria the sovereign control of an independent country over the resources within its borders which was envisaged in the Moscow Declaration of 1943.

Soviet Writers Complete Visit to U.S.

[Released to the press July 12]

Assistant Secretary William Benton has received the following letter¹ from the three Russian writers who recently toured the United States as guests of the Department of State:

Abandoning the shores of the United States we wish to express to you our common deep gratitude for your excellent attention to us and for that attention which the State Department showed us in your name.

We were glad to travel about your country, making use of the kind and authoritative help of the State Department. We think that mutual travels of representatives of culture will assist the cooperation and the friendship between our countries, and we are very glad that on this trip we encountered the aid of the State Department in your person.

We are also glad to have the opportunity to write you that your assistants Messrs. Neal, Nelson, and Williams, who kindly gave us help at your directions, not only did help us but during the time of our joint journeys became our sincere friends.

Once more we heartily thank you.

Sincerely yours,

KONSTANTIN SIMINOV,
Major General M. R. GALAKTIONOV
ILYA EHRENBURG

The Soviet writers came to the United States in April, at the invitation of the American Society of Newspaper Editors, to address the Society's convention. They remained for 10 weeks as guests of the Department.

"I hope that the visit of the Messrs. Ehrenburg, Siminov and Galaktionov may symbolize, for the

future, increasing interchanges between the scholars, writers and scientists of the Soviet Union and the United States", Mr. Benton said. "Such interchanges offer one of the most promising means for achieving better understanding among peoples everywhere. If favorable action is taken on H.R. 4982, the basic legislation for our information and cultural exchange program, which is now before Congress, it will be possible for us to extend to the Eastern hemisphere the systematic program for stimulating the exchange of persons which now exists for Latin-America."

The Russian writers were given complete freedom to go wherever in the United States they pleased. Representatives of the Department of State accompanied them only at such times as they requested, helping with travel arrangements and serving as interpreters, since none of the three speaks English.

The visitors spent most of their time in New York City because they were primarily interested in meeting writers and artists. Mr. Ehrenburg, who is a correspondent for *Izvestia*, visited Harvard University with Mr. Siminov, and toured the South.

General Galaktionov, who is military editor of *Pravda*, visited the United States Military Academy, and made a trip to Chicago, where he was the guest of the Inland Press Association and inspected newspaper and printing plants.

Mr. Siminov, who is a member of the Soviet Film Committee, visited Los Angeles and Hollywood. In Hollywood he proposed the creation of an American-Russian film council to facilitate exchanges of movies and of film personnel between the United States and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

All three visited Detroit en route to Canada. They sailed from Boston on June 26.

¹ Translation.

Military Assistance to China¹

*The following letter from the Secretary of State to the Speaker of the House of Representatives, under date June 12, 1946, strongly recommends the early enactment of this legislation:*²

MY DEAR MR. SPEAKER: I am transmitting herewith a draft of a proposed bill to provide military advice and assistance to the Republic of China to aid it in modernizing its armed forces for the fulfillment of obligations which may devolve upon it under the Charter of the United Nations, and for other purposes, which the Department recommends be enacted into law.

The proposed bill has been prepared in collaboration with the War and Navy Departments, and has the full endorsement of General of the Army George C. Marshall.

The purpose of the proposed bill is to provide advice and assistance to the Republic of China in modernizing its armed forces for the fulfillment of obligations which may devolve upon the Republic of China under international agreements, and for other purposes. Under the draft bill the President would be authorized, in his discretion, to provide to the Republic of China training and instruction for Chinese military and naval personnel, plans and technical advice and information. The training and instruction of Chinese military and naval personnel might be carried on to a limited extent in service schools in this country as well as in China.

The President would likewise be authorized to dispose to the Republic of China of arms and ammunition and other property of the United States except naval vessels and other naval supplies and equipment. Such disposal would be effected by sale, exchange, lease, gift or transfer for cash, credit, or other property, with or without warranty, or upon such other terms as the President may deem proper. Such disposal may, however, be made only if it is consistent with the military and naval requirements of the United States. Naval vessels and other naval supplies and equipment have been excepted from the provisions of the draft bill relating to the disposal of Government-owned property, inasmuch as they are the subject of separate legislation. The draft bill con-

tains, in section 2, safeguards for the security of any information or property that may be furnished to the Republic of China by this Government and provisions preventing, except with the consent of the President of the United States, the retransfer of title to or possession of any property transferred to the Republic of China under the legislation.

Section 3 of the proposed bill would authorize the President, upon application from the Republic of China, to detail officers and enlisted men of the United States Army, Navy, and Marine Corps to assist the Republic of China by means consonant with the purpose of the bill. Provision is made concerning the payment of such additional compensation as might be necessary to make appropriate adjustments for the increased cost of living which would be occasioned by such detail. Personnel detailed would receive pay and allowances as entitled in the United States Army, Navy, or Marine Corps, and would be allowed the same credit for longevity, retirement, and all other purposes that they would receive if they were serving with the armed forces of the United States.

Section 4 of the proposed bill authorizes the appropriation of moneys to carry out the provisions of the bill, provided that articles or services furnished shall be within the limits of appropriations made specifically for that purpose or shall be surplus to the needs of the Government of the United States. Section 5 gives the President authority to promulgate such rules and regulations as may be necessary to carry out the provisions of the bill, and to exercise his authority under the bill through such agencies as he may desire. Section 6 provides that the provisions of the bill shall terminate 10 years after the date of its enactment.

I firmly believe that the national interest, including this country's interest in the reestablishment and preservation of peace and security in Asia, requires that the United States give aid to the Republic of China by assisting that country to organize and maintain modern military forces of

¹ Printed from H. Rept. 2361.

² H. R. 6795, to provide military advice and assistance to the Republic of China.

moderate size which will permit China to make a substantial contribution to peace in that part of the world.

The Republic of China has already requested that this Government send a mission to China to give advice and assistance in military matters. Under his wartime powers, the President has directed the War and Navy Departments to send a small advisory group to China. Missions to provide military advice and assistance have previously been sent by this country to many other countries, including Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, etc., under legislation enacted by the Congress in 1926 and amended in 1935 and 1942. This legislation, however, does not make provision for a mission to China and unless the draft bill or similar legislation is passed, authority for the mission to China would end with the termination of the President's wartime powers.

While the Republic of China desires to modernize its armed forces, at the present time and under existing conditions it does not possess the facilities for such development nor the technical experts who can train and reorganize the armed forces. I believe that this Government should continue to assist China, which has suffered such severe losses during the war. Our present programs of military assistance to China will be terminated under provisions of existing law after June 30, 1946, unless the proposed legislation or similar legislation is enacted. In the national interest, it is extremely important that assistance to China continue without interruption.

I have been informed by the War and Navy Departments that the property which it is contemplated would be transferred to the Republic of China under the draft bill would consist principally of excess military equipment and training aids sufficient to accomplish the basic purpose of the proposed legislation.

A similar communication is being sent to the President pro tempore, United States Senate.

The Department has been informed by the Bureau of the Budget that there is no objection to the submission of this proposal to the Congress for its consideration.

Sincerely yours,

JAMES F. BYRNES

U. S. and Australia Raise Legations at Washington and Canberra to Embassies

[Released to the press by the White House July 9]

Following discussions between the President and the Acting Secretary of State, Dean Acheson, and the Australian Minister of State for External Affairs, H. V. Evatt, formal arrangements have been completed between the United States and Australian Governments for raising the rank of their legations at Washington and Canberra to embassies, and of the office of Minister to that of Ambassador. This step is the natural consequence of the increasingly close and cordial relations between Australia and the United States and reflects the added importance of the Pacific area in the eyes of both Governments.

President Truman will submit to the Senate the nomination of Robert Butler of St. Paul, Minnesota, as first United States Ambassador to Australia.

The Minister of State for the Navy, Norman Makin, will in due course be accredited as the first Australian Ambassador to the United States.

Appointment of Public-Affairs Officers

India

William C. Johnstone, Jr., Washington, D.C., educator, has been appointed chief public-affairs officer for India for the Office of International Information and Cultural Affairs, William T. Stone, Director of that Office, announced on July 10.

The Soviet Union

William T. Stone, Director of the Office of International Information and Cultural Affairs, announced on July 12 the appointment of Armond D. Willis as chief public-affairs officer for OIC in the Soviet Union. Mr. Willis will be attached to the American Embassy at Moscow.

Summary of Non-Military Activities in Japan for May 1946¹

Formation of a new cabinet following Japan's first post-war election "marked an important step in a continuing democratic process which gave the Japanese valuable political experience in parliamentary government," General MacArthur asserts in his latest summary of non-military activities in Japan. The report, covering the month of May, was made public on July 13.

Terming the highly publicized negotiations which resulted in the evolution of the Yoshida Cabinet "a further advance in the democratization of Japanese politics," the report states that they signaled a sharp break from methods of the past when a new premier was generally chosen "in secret conferences of an inner clique consisting of 'elder statesmen' and 'circles close to the throne'".

Resignation of the Shidehara Cabinet "as a direct result of the pressure of public opinion" was in itself, according to the SCAP summary, "an encouraging advance in Japan's political development".

With the disappearance of the "inner clique," the report declares, the formation of the cabinet "was possible only after protracted negotiations among the parties represented in a democratically elected Diet. It was conducted openly and to the accompaniment of a running fire of critical comment from the press and the public. A valuable precedent was thus created for the future."

Other important developments noted in the report were the barring from public office of Ichiro Hatoyama, former president of the Liberal Party and leading candidate for the premiership; the increasing number of public demonstrations and the Supreme Commander's precautionary warning against violence inspired by irresponsible minorities; the food crisis which became acute in all the major cities; and the depressing effect of the coal shortage on many phases of Japanese economy.

The forming of the new cabinet, the summary declares, did much to clarify the political situation after a protracted cabinet crisis which "marked a forward step in Japan's progress toward the development of democratic institutions".

The action of SCAP on May 3 in barring Hatoyama from public office under the Purge Directive

because of his anti-democratic record, the report says, "had been postponed as long as possible to give the Japanese Government the chance to take this step on their own initiative. When they failed to do so, SCAP was compelled to act".

The barring of Hatoyama, the summary points out, "had a salutary effect in reminding the Japanese Government of SCAP's insistence on strict and thorough compliance with the Purge Directive".

Summarizing the negotiations leading up to the final organization of the Yoshida Cabinet, termed part of a "continuing process" in the development of parliamentary institutions, the report states:

"The Cabinet represents the more conservative forces still active in Japanese political life (the extreme reactionaries, militarists and their sympathizers have been eliminated for all practical purposes). It thus correctly reflects the present balance of political forces in the lower House as established by popular vote in the April election. Over against the conservative Government is a vigorous and progressive opposition which will act as watchdog for the liberal groups of the populace and as a check on the parties in power. It will strive to take advantage of the Government's mistakes to build up its own popular strength with the aim of eventually succeeding to office.

"This points toward the development of a normal and healthy parliamentary situation which will provide the Japanese with more valuable political experience than would have been possible under a 'national' coalition government. If the Yoshida Cabinet is able to solve outstanding national problems to the satisfaction of the country, it may expect to remain in office for some time. If it fails to do so, it may have to give way to a new combination or, should dissatisfaction become too strong, it may have to resort to dissolution of the Diet and the calling of new elections."

Participation of approximately 1,000,000 in Japan's first May Day labor celebrations in 10 years

¹ This summary, released to the press by the War Department on July 13, is based on Summation No. 8, Non-Military Activities in Japan, from General Headquarters, Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers.

is called "unprecedented" in the report and is cited as evidence of the progress of trade unionism. The celebrations, according to the summary, "demonstrated the new freedom which the occupation has given to the Japanese people and the political vitality of the working class which, properly guided, can be a potent force in the democratic reconstruction of Japan".

Demonstrations, however, became increasingly frequent during May, the summation adds, and indicated a growing restlessness "which was shrewdly exploited by left-wing political elements. Communists and their sympathizers, together with left-wing Social Democrats, appear to have played the leading role in organizing most of these demonstrations."

"The temper of the people as a whole was clearly peaceful," the report continues. "Few instances of violence occurred and none of a serious nature, but the situation held such possibilities that on 20 May the Supreme Commander issued a strong warning against the dangers of mass violence and physical processes of intimidation by disorderly minorities."

"His statement was prominently displayed in the Japanese press and reactions indicated that it had the desired effect. There was a striking decline in the number of mass demonstrations following the message."

Crimes against Occupation Forces were at a low rate, the report shows, the majority involving theft or unauthorized possession of Army supplies. Four Japanese were given prison terms for assaulting two American soldiers. A plot to assassinate the Supreme Commander received wide attention but no incidents occurred and intelligence agencies continued detailed investigations.

Relations between the Occupation Forces and the civilian populace on the whole remained satisfactory, the summary reports, and were not disturbed by the demonstrations directed against the Japanese Government and the food situation.

During May, the Japanese Government was ordered to apprehend 96 persons suspected of war crimes. In trials held in Japan from April 25 to May 24, one accused was sentenced to death, two were given life imprisonment, and 16 others were given lesser prison terms. The indictment and arraignment of 28 Japanese leaders accused as major war criminals were completed during the month.

Turning to the food situation, the report states that urban foodstocks reached unprecedented low levels in May as a result of a sharp decline in inter-prefectural shipments of rice. The shipments were insufficient for the daily ration requirements in Tokyo, Yokohama, Nagoya, Kyoto, Osaka, and Kobe.

In Tokyo, the report states, the delay accumulated over a six-week period causing a daily allotment of about 80 percent of the current ration of 1,042 calories per person.

The summary points out that increased supplies of vegetables and fish, because of their low caloric content, failed to compensate for the reduced staple food distribution.

"Manifestations of the critical situation were evidenced in increased turnover, absenteeism and general lack of efficiency among heavy laborers. Supplementary rations for heavy labor were drastically reduced in all districts and virtually abandoned in the Tokyo-Yokohama area during the emergency."

Local stocks in most surplus-producing prefectures were lessened by "deficit transfers" which jeopardized reserves beyond July or August. Farmers proved extremely reluctant to have additional stocks removed from their villages, the report says, and contended that if the Government's rice quotas were filled, their diet would dwindle to an inadequate level during the months of intense farm labor. Local resistance, the summary adds, was "often backed by threats to forcibly intercept further shipments".

Through May 10, the Government reported it had bought a total of 2,799,000 metric tons of rice from the 1945-46 crop or 83.4 percent of the established quota of 3,355,000 tons. By the same date last year, the Government had purchased 98.6 percent of its 1944-45 quota of 5,585,000 tons.

Causes of the food shortage, according to the report, are the lack of imports upon which Japan used to rely for 15 to 20 percent of her food; the poor 1945 rice harvest which was 27 percent less than the previous year; and the repatriation program which has boosted the population and reduced the amount of food available per capita. The poor harvest was said to have been caused by bad weather and shortages of labor and of fertilizer.

To relieve the crisis in the Tokyo-Yokohama area SCAP released 8,705 long tons of imported

wheat flour for distribution from May 21 to 28. Since February, 24,349.5 long tons of imported and U.S. Army foodstuffs were released to the Japanese Government.

"These foodstocks," the report states, "were excess or in danger of imminent spoilage. As of 21 May, 166,791 long tons of imported food was being held in storage for future distribution. In addition to 42,460 long tons of grain from the regular import program, this quantity includes 27,264 long tons of excess U.S. Army food and 97,067 tons of Army emergency reserve wheat."

As a result of his food survey in Japan, the summary notes, former President Herbert Hoover recommended that 870,000 tons of food be imported by the end of September, the largest quantities to arrive during June and July when the food shortage was expected to be most critical.

To combat the food shortage, the Government organized a land reclamation project to increase the amount of cultivated land; encouraged emergency gardening; attempted to improve fertilizer production and proposed a food conservation program. SCAP spurred the fertilizer production campaign with a directive to the Japanese Government on May 17 to give fertilizer production and distribution first priority. SCAP officials, the report notes, have assisted also in instructing Japanese in proper food handling and storage and introducing 17 new varieties of sweet potatoes and six varieties of Irish potatoes having greater yield, caloric value, or resistance to disease than domestic varieties.

The Hokkaido herring season accounted for most of the increase in fish catches from 48,078 metric tons in March to 303,236 tons in April, the report shows. This permitted substantially increased fish deliveries to consumers in the large cities. SCAP granted the Japanese permission on May 13 to start building 416 steel fishing ships grossing 48,532 tons, and some of these may be ready to operate before the end of the year.

Lumber production, the report states, has increased from 154,000,000 board feet in February to 193,000,000 in April, but log production fell, partly because of lack of transportation to move the logs already cut. The plywood industry, according to the summary, will have to cease operation unless it receives more soybeans for glue manufacture. Because of the food shortage, soybeans cannot be obtained for conversion into glue.

Coal production dropped 39,000 metric tons from March to April. The reduction resulted in part from insufficient incentives to work plus the continual low food supply.

Another deterrent to coal production, the summary finds, is the lack of profit incentive. The present price and subsidy were calculated on the basis of an estimated 200 yen per metric ton as average cost whereas operators say the actual cost is now between 250 and 300 yen.

Gradual increases continued in lead, zinc, and copper mining but production is deterred by shortages of food, fuel, and equipment.

Greatest obstacle to production in all heavy industries was found to be the coal shortage. The continued lack of adequate equipment, labor, and raw materials were also important factors, the report notes.

Pig-iron furnaces were operating at 2.5 percent of capacity on May 1. Five more electric furnace steel producers resumed operations, adding about 4,000 metric tons to previous monthly capacity in operation. Lead smelting and refining showed increases, as did copper production, but zinc fell about 10 percent for lack of fuel. Cement production in April was the highest since the end of the war. The machinery industry registered a slight gain.

Construction of Japanese housing, the report indicates, is being carried out at the rate of about 20,000 new houses monthly with a total of 250,000 house units expected by the end of the year. Foundations were laid in May for the first houses to accommodate dependents of Allied forces in the Tokyo-Yokohama area.

Most of the food-processing industries made satisfactory production gains, the summary states. Pulp and paper production continued to rise and there were conspicuous increases in glassware, optical instruments, aluminum household ware, rubber goods, sewing machines, and electrical equipment.

A survey found that about one third of Japan's 121,138 usable vehicles were not in operation, primarily because of lack of parts. Allocations of raw materials to parts manufacturers were increased. Problems facing the manufacture of automotive equipment, the report says, included inadequate working capital because of currency controls and high-priced materials; transportation difficulties; shortage of labor and low labor efficiency; and, above all, shortage of materials.

Cotton-yarn production dropped 822,000 pounds in April because of raw-material shortages, the summary reports. Production of short-cut silk fiber and waste silk yarns declined in April but output of wool and worsted yarn showed increases. The cotton industry was making adjustments in May for the new cotton supplies expected from the United States.

Government surveys disclosed that more than half of the jobless male employables were not seeking work because they could not sustain regular employment on their low-caloric diet. Absenteeism increased as rationing delays forced workers to go to the country in search of food. The recruiting program for textile workers remained behind schedule.

In the public utilities fields, the gas industry demonstrated improvements resulting from extensive repairs. Electric-power supply proved adequate to meet present demands. Merchant shipping between Japanese ports increased with the availability of additional vessels. Overseas radiotelegraph service was established in May between Japan and the Hawaiian Islands, as well as between Japan and France. The latter service is available for government representatives, press and business concerns. Radiotelegraph service for business concerns was also established between Japan and the United States.

The May report found increasing organizational activity among both workers and employers. On May 8 the Japanese Government reported 1,690,985 workers belonging to 3,739 unions, most of them in the transportation, communication, mining, and manufacturing fields. On May 4 the Federation of Iron and Steel Manufacturers, an employer group, came into existence embracing about 70 percent of the industry. The first permanent labor-management committee on production and labor administration was set up in a coal mine in Hokkaido by collective agreement at the end of April.

Labor disputes declined in May although conditions in the railroad, communications, and education fields remained delicate, the report asserts. Wage rates remained constant in many industries "although the cost of living was still rising and workers were increasingly reliant on the black market for goods". According to a Government report, wages had risen 200 to 400 percent since the end of the war but living costs had spurted 850 percent.

On May 18 SCAP ordered the Government to retain in its budget a 6,000,000,000 yen appropriation for a public-works program. The Government also made plans for Japan's first large-scale vocational training program to train 600,000 persons yearly in construction, agriculture, fishing, mining, handicrafts, and office work.

In the first 25 days of May Japan's exports consisted of timbers and railway ties to China, raw silk to the United States, and railway equipment, coal, salt, chemicals, drugs, bamboo, paper, and electrical equipment to Korea. The only imports were various food items from the U. S. A., salt from China, fish from Korea and phosphate rock.

A summary of the national debt of the Japanese Government at the end of April showed a total indebtedness of 203,013,000,000 yen in government bonds, bank loans, rice bills, and food certificates. The daily average increase in note circulation in the first three weeks of May was about 250,000,000 yen, reaching a total of 33,437,000,000 yen on May 21.

Bullion and precious metals in SCAP custody totaled \$255,125,646 on May 21. Two additional companies with 48 subsidiaries and 22 subsidiaries of four other concerns were added to the list of restricted concerns during the month in a continuation of SCAP's anti-trust program.

An inventory of all machine tools in aircraft plants, arsenals, and laboratories held under custody and control by Occupation Forces was ordered during the month. The purpose of the inventory, the report explains, is to provide a detailed machine tool catalogue to help "selectors" in nations claiming reparations understand exactly what is available in Japan.

In the public-health field, the summary notes a decline in the incidence of typhus fever and smallpox and the inauguration of a campaign to prevent insect-borne diseases during the summer. The Japanese Red Cross is in the process of reorganization, and projects for extended nursing education are under way in Tokyo and Kyoto. Production of medical supplies continued to increase.

A nation-wide census completed at the end of April indicated that the total population of Japan was 74,000,000.

In the four weeks before May 26, the report notes, 501,233 Japanese were returned to Japan, bringing the total number repatriated to 3,081,733.

(Continued on page 132)

Inter-American Military Cooperation

STATEMENT BY GEORGE H. BUTLER¹

[Released to the press July 12]

MR. CHAIRMAN: The bill which you have under consideration has been endorsed by the State, War, and Navy Departments and recommended to the Congress by the President. The purpose of the bill itself and of any programs that may be carried out under it lies primarily in the field of military and naval affairs, concerning which representatives of the War and Navy Departments are here to speak. I should like to refer only to a few aspects of the bill from the viewpoint of our foreign relations.

The military cooperation which this bill envisages is one aspect of the broad range of cooperation among the American states. In this broad field the American republics have laid special emphasis upon mutual cooperation for their economic, social, and cultural advancement, and upon consultation upon all matters of common interest. Since before the recent war American republics have also devoted a large part of their cooperative efforts to the problem of maintaining their mutual security.

The experience of the war demonstrated the importance of inter-American security measures. It also revealed the handicaps which existed as a result of the varying types of military organizations and equipment which the different American states possessed. Considerable progress was made during the war in overcoming some of these handicaps, as well as in building a firmer political foundation for inter-American peace and security.

These efforts culminated in 1945 with the adoption at Mexico City of the Act of Chapultepec, which provided that an attack by any state upon any one of the American states will be considered an attack upon all of them. The act provided for consultation to determine measures that should be taken in the event of such an attack and specified that armed force might be one of those measures. The Act of Chapultepec also specifically provided that the arrangements contained in it, and in any treaty that might be concluded pursuant to its recommendations, should be consistent with the Charter of the United Nations, which had not at that time yet been drawn up.

Under this regional arrangement for the maintenance of international peace and security in the Americas, a close collaboration amongst all the American republics is envisaged in all fields relating to their mutual security. The standardization of the organization and equipment of the armed forces of all republics is recognized by the heads of our armed forces as being a highly desirable method of facilitating the close collaboration in the military field which the Act of Chapultepec envisages. This view is shared by military authorities of other American states. It is also reflected in the recommendations of the Inter-American Defense Board, on which all 21 American republics are represented, and which has urged the adoption of similar tables of organization and equipment by the armed forces of all its member nations.

Subsequent to the establishment of the inter-American regional system, based on the Act of Chapultepec and other earlier inter-American agreements, the United States and all the other American states participated in creating the United Nations. The Charter of the United Nations recognizes that regional arrangements of this character might exist. At San Francisco it was the view of all countries, however, that the Security Council should be made the unquestionably supreme authority for the maintenance of international peace and security anywhere in the world. For this reason regional arrangements, such as our inter-American system, are specifically barred from carrying out any enforcement measures without authorization of the Security Council. The regional system must, according to the Charter, obtain the authorization of the Security Council for any enforcement action, unless an armed attack actually takes place, when states may exercise their right of self-defense until the Security Council takes the necessary action.

¹ Made before the Senate Foreign Relations Committee in connection with the Inter-American Military Cooperation Bill, S-2153. Mr. Butler, Deputy Director of the Office of American Republic Affairs of the Department of State, was recently confirmed by the Senate as Ambassador to the Dominican Republic.

I cite the foregoing to indicate that the inter-American security arrangements upon which the proposed program of military cooperation rests are entirely in harmony with the principles and provisions of the Charter of the United Nations. It is, of course, a paramount objective of American foreign policy to support the United Nations fully and effectively, and any inter-American agreement to which this Government becomes a party would, of course, have to be consistent with the Charter of the United Nations.

The activities which the War and Navy Departments have suggested for execution under authority of this bill are directed towards working out, with the armed forces of other American states, a standardization of military organization and equipment. As the President stated in his message to Congress concerning this bill, it is not the desire of this Government to promote any unnecessary increase in the armed forces of other countries or to encourage the imposition upon other peoples of a burden of maintaining armed forces in excess of what the economy of other countries can support. In view of the established purpose of the American republics to work towards a secure peace and to cooperate in the improvement of their living standards and in their sound economic development, it would be inconsistent and undesirable for the United States to encourage in any way an armaments race among the other American states. In the administration of any programs carried out under this bill, the State Department will—and I am sure from statements already made that the War and Navy Departments agree with this purpose—avoid any action which would tend to promote the competitive acquisition of arms by other countries.

In this connection I should like to refer to Secretary Byrnes' statement that it is a purpose of our foreign policy to work for a regulation of armaments in the light of requirements for the maintenance of internal order and of international peace and security. Although it has not yet been possible to establish any such general system of arms regulation, the plan of inter-American military collaboration will be executed with a view to working out with the other American republics a regulation of armaments which will keep armaments down to a minimum. Any general international agreement for the regulation of armaments to which the United States may subscribe will, ac-

cording to the bill itself, govern any operations which this Government may carry out under the bill.

Although the inter-American regional system, to which I have referred, does not include Canada as a member, the bill has been drafted with a view to making possible the extension to Canada of the cooperation which the bill authorizes. The special importance of our relations with Canada in all matters including defense makes this eminently desirable.

Visit of Brazilian Jurist

Waldemar Falcão, a member of the Supreme Court and of the Supreme Electoral Tribunal of Brazil, arrived in Washington on July 7 on an official mission of the Brazilian Government to study and observe the U.S. electoral system.

His itinerary will include Washington, Baltimore, Philadelphia, New York, Boston, and Chicago.

JAPANESE ACTIVITIES—Continued from page 130

In the same four weeks, 21,477 foreign nationals left Japan. These comprised 5,825 Formosans, 15,335 Koreans, and 317 Chinese. A total of 970,754 foreign nationals had been repatriated from Japan as of May 26.

Since the close of the war, the Education Ministry reported, 602 persons have resigned or been dismissed under the program for the elimination of militaristic personnel, and 37 persons previously dismissed for liberal views have been reinstated. On May 6 the Japanese Government announced the rules for the screening of all teachers and educational officials to weed out undemocratic elements.

The Japanese press gave wide support to the aims of the International Military Tribunal as the trial of the Japanese leaders for major war crimes got under way and expressed the belief that the trials would be fair, the summary reports. SCAP officials, the report states, continued to stress informational programs directed toward increasing farmer efficiency, encouraging democratic practices among labor organizations, and improving the position of women in national life.

The Foreign Service

Foreign Service Examinations Scheduled

[Released to the press July 8]

The Department of State announced on July 8 plans for the admission by examination of 250 officers into the middle and upper grades of the Foreign Service of the United States. The new officers will be selected from members of the armed forces, veterans, and government employees. It is planned that appointments will be offered to 120 during the current fiscal year, and 130 during the next fiscal year.

The Department announced that the recruitment in the middle and upper grades was required as a result of the suspension of admissions during the war years and the increased responsibilities of the Service. A special act of Congress, signed by President Truman on July 3, was necessary to make possible these admissions, as normally individuals may enter the Foreign Service only in the lowest grade.

Application forms and detailed information will be available through the Board of Examiners for the Foreign Service, Department of State, Washington 25, D.C., early in August. It is contemplated that the first of these Foreign Service appointments will be made from among successful candidates whose applications are submitted prior to October 1, 1946. Candidates passing these examinations will be commissioned in the Foreign Service in grades appropriate to their ages and qualifications. It is expected, however, that due to the limited number of vacancies in the upper grades, few men over 40 years of age will be commissioned and these will have unusually high qualifications.

Candidates for appointment will be chosen on the basis of demonstrated executive, administrative, commercial, scholastic, or reportorial ability. Candidates must be 31 years of age, citizens of the United States for at least 15 years, and if married, married to American citizens.

Appointments will be restricted to veterans of World War II, members of the armed forces or the Merchant Marine, or to persons with at least two

years' responsible government experience since December 7, 1941.

Each candidate is required to have either a Bachelor's degree from an accredited college, or at least two years of college work and two years of responsible employment abroad. Candidates must have facility in reading at least one major foreign language. These languages include Arabic, Chinese, French, Japanese, German, Portuguese, Russian, and Spanish.

The authorizing act provides: "That the President is authorized under the provisions of this Act to appoint, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, not to exceed two hundred and fifty persons to positions as Foreign Service officers. Each such appointment shall be by commission to a classified grade and shall be in addition to all other appointments of Foreign Service officers.

"A person appointed under this Act may, under such regulations as the Board of Foreign Service Personnel for the Foreign Service may prescribe, be commissioned as a Foreign Service officer of any classified grade, depending upon his age, experience, and ability. Upon appointment, any such Foreign Service officer shall receive the lowest basic salary of the classified grade to which he or she is appointed.

"No person shall be eligible for appointment as a Foreign Service officer under this Act unless he or she—

"(a) is an American citizen and has been such at least fifteen years; and

"(b) has served (1) in the active military or naval service of the United States on or after September 16, 1940, and has been separated or released therefrom under honorable conditions after active service of ninety days or more, or by reason of an injury or disability incurred in service in line of duty, or (2) in the merchant marine as such service is defined by section 1 of the Act of June 23, 1943 (57 Stat. 162; 50 U.S.C. 1471), or (3) since December 7, 1941, for not less than two years in a position or positions of responsibility as an officer or employee of the legislative, executive, or judicial branches of the United States Government or of any corporation, wholly or partly owned by the United States, which is an instrumentality of the United States, whose service and experience can qualify him or her as a Foreign Service officer; and

"(c) has been designated by the Secretary of State as a candidate for examination for appoint-

ment as a Foreign Service officer and has passed such examination as the Secretary may prescribe; and

"(d) was at least thirty-one years of age at the time of application.

"No appointment under this Act shall be made after the expiration of two years after the date of enactment of this Act."

Diplomatic and Consular Offices

The Vice Consulate at Arica, Chile, was officially closed on or before April 5, 1946.

The American Consulate at Durango, Mexico, was closed May 31, 1946.

The American Consulate at Krakow, Poland, is considered to have been formally established on July 1, 1946.

The American Embassy at Manila, Philippines, was established July 4, 1946.

The Consulate General at Manila will continue to function as a separate establishment until a later date when the Embassy and Consulate General will function as a combined office.

Confirmations

The Senate confirmed on July 11 the following nominations:

Robert Butler to be Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary of the United States of America to Australia.

J. Leighton Stuart to be Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary of the United States of America to China.

Joseph F. McGurk to be Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary of the United States of America to Uruguay.

Harold H. Tittmann, Jr., to be Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary of the United States of America to Haiti.

George H. Butler to be Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary of the United States of America to the Dominican Republic.

Foreign Commerce Weekly

The following article of interest to readers of the BULLETIN appeared in the June 29 issue of the *Foreign Commerce Weekly*, a publication of the Department of Commerce, copies of which may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, for 10 cents each:

"Planning a Trip to Chile To Live or Manage Office" based on a report from the Economics Division, American Embassy, Santiago.

Visit of Swiss Journalists

Four leading Swiss journalists arrived here July 6 on the final leg of a six-weeks' tour of the United States as guests of the Department of State. They are Eugen Dietschi, member of Parliament and economic editor of the Basle Radical Democratic daily *National Zeitung*, who represents the Radical Democratic press; Carl Doka, editor of the St. Gallen Catholic Conservative daily *Ostschweizer* and representative of the Conservative press; Hugo Kramer, Geneva correspondent of the Swiss-German Social Democratic and Labor press, representative of Socialist newspapers; and Jean Seitz, Parliamentary editor of the liberal daily *Gazette de Lausanne*, representing the liberal press.

The Congress

Cessation of Hostilities, Termination of the War and Emergencies; Hearings Before Subcommittee No. IV of the Committee on the Judiciary, House of Representatives, Seventy-ninth Congress, second session, on H. Con. Res. 85, H. Con. Res. 86, H. Con. Res. 91, Declaring the date of termination of hostilities in the present war, H. J. Res. 245, to declare September 2, 1945, as the date of cessation of hostilities in the present war, H. Con. Res. 98, declaring the end of the unlimited Emergency, the national emergency and the termination of hostilities of World War II, H. Res. 272, H. Con. Res. 132, H. Con. Res. 133, to declare December 7, 1945, as the date of the cessation of hostilities in, and as the date of the termination of, the present war, H. J. Res. 287, to declare the date of termination of the wars in which the United States has recently been engaged. May 27 and 28, 1946. Serial No. 17, Part 2, iii, 100 pp.

Membership and Participation by the United States in the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization: Hearings Before the Committee on Foreign Affairs, House of Representatives, Seventy-ninth Congress, second session, on H.J. Res. 305, a joint resolution providing for membership and participation by the United States in the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, and authorizing an appropriation therefor. April 3, 4, and 5, 1946. iii, 99 pp. [Department of State, pp. 3-42, 67-79, 80-88.]

Investigation of the National Defense Program: Hearings Before a Special Committee Investigating the National Defense Program, United States Senate, Seventy-ninth Congress, first session, pursuant to S. Res. 55 (79th Congress), (Extending S. Res. 71—77th Congress), a resolution authorizing and directing an investigation of the National defense program. Part 32. Tin Shortage. 10

posal of Surplus Property (Municipalities—Small Business—Veterans). Reconversion (West Virginia—Aviation Industry). Irregularities in Fourteenth Naval District. Strategic War Reserves. Merchant Shipping—Pacific. September 21, 24, October 4, 10, 11, 22, 23, 25, November 6, 28, December 12, 14, 21, 1945. xii, 846 pp., xx. [Indexed.]

Investigation of the Production, Transportation, and Marketing of Wool: Hearings Before the Special Committee to Investigate the production, transportation, and marketing of wool, United States Senate, Seventy-ninth Congress, second session, pursuant to S. Res. 58 (79th Congress) and S. Res. 160 (74th Congress) resolutions providing for an investigation of the production, transportation, and marketing of wool, and S. 2033, a bill to provide support for wool, to amend the agricultural marketing agreement act of 1937 by including wool as a commodity to which orders under such act are applicable, to authorize the Secretary of Agriculture to fix wool standards, and for other purposes. Part 7. May 13, 14, and 15, 1946. iii, 76 pp.

Retention by the United States Government or Its Agencies or Instrumentalities of Real and Personal Property Within the Philippines. H. Rept. 2296, 79th Cong., to accompany H.R. 6801. 3 pp. [Favorable report.]

Amending the Philippine Rehabilitation Act of 1946 for the Purpose of Making a Clerical Correction. H. Rept. 2297, 79th Cong., to accompany H.R. 6802. 1 p. [Favorable report.]

Providing for Registration and Protection of Trade-Marks Used in Commerce and To Carry Out Provisions of Certain International Conventions. H. Rept. 2322, 79th Cong., to accompany H.R. 1654. 7 pp.

Reorganization Plan No. 1 of 1946. H. Rept. 2326, 79th Cong., to accompany H. Con. Res. 155. 20 pp. [Favorable report.]

Reorganization Plan No. 2 of 1946. H. Rept. 2327, 79th Cong., to accompany H. Con. Res. 151. 4 pp. [Favorable report.]

Reorganization Plan No. 3 of 1946. H. Rept. 2328, 79th Cong., to accompany H. Con. Res. 154. 7 pp. [Favorable report.]

Providing Assistance to the Republic of China in Augmenting and Maintaining a Naval Establishment. H. Rept. 2333, 79th Cong., to accompany H.R. 5356. 3 pp.

Agreement on Amendments to a Bill Relating to the Right of Filipinos and East Indians To Become Naturalized Citizens of the United States and To Enter the Country Under Small Quotas. H. Rept. 2334, 79th Cong., to accompany H.R. 3517. 2 pp.

Third Deficiency Appropriation Bill, 1946. H. Rept. 2345, 79th Cong., to accompany H.R. 6885. 35 pp. [Department of State, pp. 8-10, 22-23.]

Authorizing Appointment of Additional Foreign Service Officers in the Classified Grades. H. Rept. 2348, 79th Cong., to accompany H.R. 5244. 2 pp.

Denying Admission to the United States of Certain Aliens. H. Rept. 2351, 79th Cong., to accompany H.R. 6869. 5 pp. [Favorable report.]

Assist China To Modernize Her Armed Forces. H. Rept. 2361, 79th Cong., to accompany H.R. 6795. 5 pp. [Favorable report.]

Amending the Second War Powers Act, 1942, As Amended, H. Rept. 2395, 79th Cong., to accompany H.R. 5716. 2 pp.

Amending the First War Powers Act, 1941. H. Rept. 2398, 79th Cong., to accompany H.R. 6890. 28 pp. [Favorable report.]

Providing for the Payment of Pension or Other Benefits Withheld From Persons for the Period They Were Residing in Countries Occupied by the Enemy Forces During World War II. H. Rept. 2428, 79th Cong., to accompany H.R. 5148. 5 pp. [Favorable report.]

Departments of State, Justice, Commerce, and the Judiciary Appropriation Bill, 1947. H. Rept. 2434, 79th Cong., to accompany H.R. 6056.

Training Announcements

Appointment of William P. Maddox as Chief of Division of Training Services

Dr. William P. Maddox, formerly of the University of Pennsylvania and of the Foreign Policy Association, entered July 11 upon his new duties as Chief of the Division of Training Services. He fills the position which has been vacant since Carol H. Foster left for his new assignment as Consul General at Capetown. Perry N. Jester has been Acting Chief during the interim period.

Dr. Maddox will undertake the direction of the entire training program, which includes the training of newly appointed Foreign Service officers, in-service and specialist training, the training of departmental and Foreign Service clerical and administrative personnel, and language training. The Division of Training Services has also been conducting orientation conferences for departmental and Foreign Service personnel.

Foreign Service Officers Training

Training of newly appointed Foreign Service officers has been proceeding rapidly on a crowded schedule. Classes averaging about 15 officers each reported for instruction on June 3, June 17, July 1, and July 15, and a fifth group was expected about the first week in August. Other groups are expected at fortnightly intervals.

Each class has four weeks of classroom orientation and instruction. At the completion of this schedule, officers are routed to appropriate divisions of the State Department for personal conferences, as well as to the Department of Commerce and other departments and agencies. The period of instruction has had to be held to a minimum because of the pressing need for officers in the field.

The training program for this group is under the direction of Mr. Jester. Officers in many divisions of the Department have been assisting by giving lectures on special subjects.

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